

SOCIAL EDUCATION

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By
ALICE V. KELIHER

with
The Commission
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Relations

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P. E. A.

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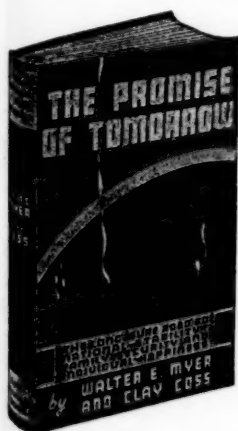
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Editor's Page

YOUTH IN THE DEPRESSION

SEVERAL studies published during the past two years¹ have analyzed our youth problem. Many—perhaps 40 per cent—of those sixteen to twenty-four years of age are now neither in school nor employed. Many of those who are employed are in “temporary” unskilled jobs and dissatisfied; a large number ambitious to enter professions, or white collar or skilled occupations, find their way blocked. Wages are low—often too low to permit independence, often so low as to suggest motives for crime. Wholesome recreation is often barred, sometimes by lack of money, sometimes by lack of facilities. In 1936 it was estimated that a million and a half marriages had been postponed because of the depression. Sex and family problems have become more acute. Special difficulties can be identified in the case of rural and Negro youth.

THE CHALLENGE TO SCHOOLS

SCHOOLS have long been assuming new responsibilities in the development of competent and well rounded citizens. Health, recreation, some vocational training and guidance, some special work for the handicapped have become commonplace. The curriculum, achievement standards, and teaching procedures have been modified as the upper elementary and then secondary schools have become schools for all the people.

Yet it becomes clear that the changes have neither gone far enough nor been sufficiently

widely adopted. Adequate alternatives to the classical program of secondary schools have not been provided; school is neither attractive to nor profitable for many who can not find employment. Vocational education has been restricted to very few fields, has not always been practical and realistic, and has not been associated either with an adequate program of individual guidance or with close attention to the requirements of business and industry.

More is involved, however, than vocational education. Schools can do nothing to create new jobs—even new school posts must be created by the community—and can do little to reconcile their graduates to unemployment or to low wages or uncongenial work. Nevertheless these possibilities, together with a school program that fails to meet the needs of many pupils, threaten the success of our whole scheme of social and civic education. They are incompatible with the development of “rich and many-sided personalities” and with responsible and effective citizenship. As the President’s Advisory Committee on Education remarks, when youth are out of school and unemployed “apathy, resentment, and personal disintegration are almost sure to follow; the possibility of their becoming anti-social in behavior under such circumstances is very large.”

EDUCATION’S RESPONSE

BOTH the American Youth Commission and the President’s Advisory Committee on Education, which reported last February, have offered constructive suggestions.

¹ See the list that follows this editorial.

The latter analyzes both current needs and the resources of schools and society. It endorses, in general, the work of the National Youth Administration, the Civilian Conservation Corps, and the National Youth Administration. Noting that with "the development of present industrial and economic conditions and . . . the rapid growth of cities, the schools have been swamped with new duties," the Report nevertheless calls for "many new kinds of training, particularly in the secondary schools," for "new curriculums, new courses, and, possibly, new methods of instruction." Better buildings, better equipment, better trained teachers, are required. School and community libraries, a broad community health program, opportunities for part-time and adult education are needed. Student aid should be provided when necessary to enable continuance in school at least to the age of eighteen.

Specific suggestions for the increased effectiveness of vocational education and guidance are advanced by the Committee. Additional offerings are needed, together with analyses of occupations and the training they require, of working conditions, of occupational opportunity. In connection with the CCC and NYA emphasis is placed on the values of a "combination of work experience and organized educational activities." A very large amount of vocational training must be furnished by industry; in the Committee's view "a revival of intensive apprentice training on a limited scale throughout the Nation constitutes a major need"—though the interests of organized labor must also be regarded. Care must be taken, moreover, not to develop a class system of education on European lines; a common core of "general education" must be carefully developed and maintained.

ROLE OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

WITH all of this the social studies are immediately concerned. They have long been assigned special responsibility for the training of effective citizens, and that

responsibility has been extended to include more than the teaching of information about society, more, even, than the development of the greatest possible understanding of our social, economic, and political life and its problems. Many objectives currently advanced for the social studies seem appropriate for education as a whole—"rich and many-sided personalities," breadth of view and tolerance, a spirit and habit of cooperation, ability to adjust to a changing world, for example. All of these overtax the resources of the social studies program. In fact, with existing time limitations and offerings that have not kept pace with new demands, they have overstrained the resources of our school program as a whole, a fact which accounts in part for our restless experimentation with the curriculum.

MUCH of the existing confusion in social studies teaching reflects efforts to meet newly recognized needs. Few will question the desirability of bringing economic and social life into our account of the past, or of extending that past to include contemporary times and current issues—with such recent additions as propaganda and consumer education. Few will object to including training in citizenship and the assignment of the greatest possible responsibility for school and classroom activities to pupils. It is reasonable to doubt, however, that vocational guidance, health education, safety education, remedial reading, and sex education and campaigns against venereal disease belong in the social studies program. This, however, does not deny that they are important, that they are appropriate to the schools, or that they have significance in the development of effective citizens.

Even in the face of the integration movement, however, it is possible to maintain that the social studies have functions and an integrity of their own, that the needs of society and of its younger members require that the latter acquire a systematic and rounded knowledge of our past and present social, economic, and political organization

and problems, and that this is the primary responsibility of social studies teaching, and an indispensable contribution to the development of "rich and many-sided personalities."

The proposals for an expanded program of vocational education in connection with apprenticeship or other practical experience would do much to lessen existing confusion, reducing both maladjustment and the indifference and inertia that results from a feeling that courses have no meaning or value, and would enable the social studies, as well as natural science and the arts, to drive at their own goals. The possibilities of such relief are illustrated by the announcement that in New York City emphasis will be placed in vocational schools on "small business"—on such service trades as watch repairing, lens grinding, and dental assistance, that the running of butcher shops, bakeries, and drugstores will receive attention, and that model stores may be established.

Such a program, like other elements in the recommendations of the Advisory Committee, will be expensive, but hardly more so than the critical conditions which they aim to overcome. It calls for the cooperation or integration of existing community, state, and national agencies, with assistance from industry and organized labor.

To the extent that it can be achieved, however, it will both advance objectives with which social studies teachers have long been concerned, and simplify their task of orienting youth in the society of which it is part.

ERLING M. HUNT

RECENT STUDIES OF YOUTH

HOMER P. RAINEY and others, *How Fare American Youth?* New York: Appleton-Century, 1937. Pp. ix, 186. \$1.50. A report to the American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education, with attention to employment, education, health, recreation, rural and Negro youth, marriage and the home.

Bruce L. Melvin, *Rural Youth on Relief*. Washington (Works Progress Administration): Government Printing Office, 1937. Pp. xvii, 112. Analyzes numbers, location, educational status, occupations, emergency programs.

Howard M. Bell, *Youth Tell Their Story*. Washington: American Council on Education, 1938. Pp. xi, 273. \$1.50. A study of the conditions and attitudes of 13,500 young people in Maryland between the ages of 16 and 24, conducted by the American Youth Commission.

Harl R. Douglass, *Secondary Education for Youth in Modern America*. Washington: American Council on Education, 1937. Pp. x, 137. \$1.00. A report to the American Youth Commission, with attention to the objectives of secondary education, the problems and needs of youth, recent changes, and current trends, and a program of universal secondary education, with a chapter on implications for secondary schools.

Educational Policies Commission, *Research Memorandum on Education in the Depression*. New York: Social Science Research Council (Bulletin 28), 1937. Pp. xi, 173. Considers problems in the theory and philosophy of education, student personnel, the program of instruction, staff personnel, organization and administration, finance, business and properties, and professional and scientific activities.

Walter F. Dearborn and **John W. M. Rothney**, *Scholastic, Economic, and Social Backgrounds of Unemployed Youth*. Cambridge; Harvard Univ. Press (Harvard Bulletins in Education, no. 20), 1938. Pp. 172. \$1.50. A brief summary of earlier studies followed by a detailed analysis of children in three small cities over a twelve-year period, for which data was gathered in the Harvard Growth Study.

"The Prospect for Youth," *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Sciences*. Philadelphia, November, 1937. Pp. xii, 273. \$2.00. A series of articles on modern youth with attention to employ-

ment, social, political, and recreational organizations, crime, health, marriage, the CCC, youth movements, organizations serving youth. A bibliography is included.

Advisory Committee on Education, *Report of the Committee*. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1938. Pp. xi, 243. 35c. Report to the President of the United States on the present situation in schools, inequality of opportunity, national interest and present activity, aid and grants, the improvement of administration, schools, and vocational education, adult education, rural library service, higher education, and other topics.

Maxwell S. Stewart, *Youth in the World Today*. New York: Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 1938. Pp. 40. 10c. A convenient summary of several of the titles listed above.

See also the monthly *Bulletin* of the American Youth Commission (free upon request), which lists books, pamphlets, and articles and Louise A. Menefee and M. M. Chambers, *American Youth: an Annotated Bibliography*, published by the American Youth Commission. Studies of youth in Dallas, Texas, by Jack Robertson and of youth in Muncie, Indiana, by Raymond G. Fuller have recently been published by the Commission and are available at 30c each, for postage.

EDUCATION FOR PEACE

A COMMENT in the March issue on the ignorance and indifference of many pupils in the field of international relations led Mrs Kathryn R. Swalm of the

social studies department of the Moorestown, New Jersey, High School, to ask her students to enumerate the things for which men fight. The following response was written by a member of the senior class.

THE THINGS MEN FIGHT FOR

ETERNALLY

A man will fight for the things he loves—
His family, his friends and his land;
He'll fight for his flag and country too;
He'll fight because he's a man.
When the bugles blow and the marchers go
Swinging endlessly down the lane,
Every man will go, casting down his hoe,
And pick up a gun again.
He'll pick up a gun believing his dreams
That with it the world he can save:
He'll gladly surrender the life that is his
To succor the "home of the brave."

1917

A world that's safe for democracy,
A world where freedom rules,
A war that's a war to end all war—
(These were the dreams of fools.)
So they plodded along in an endless train
Singing merrily as they went,
To drive the plague of war from earth—
For this their lives were spent.

1938

Now Mars is treading the earth again
With firm and measured tread.
We've raised him up and placed him high
—God pity those noble, dream-drugged fools
Who valiantly gave their lives
"To make the world forever free;"
Who gave themselves—for lies.
For lies, for lies, for hateful lies,
Which they called nobility
They gave their lives to achieve a dream
Which we know can never be.

We know this dream can never be
For which our fifty thousand died.
Let that band wagon roll again
—We'll all jump on and take a ride!

VERONICA WEIDMAN, '38

The Greatest Educational Experiment

A. C. KREY

THIS is an experimental age. The wonders wrought through technology have been so marvelous as to incline all classes of society to scientific experimentation. Inspired by this support, scholars in fields of learning other than the sciences have been led to undertake varied programs of controlled research. This is notably true in education in this country and in our own time. Any idea, new or old, if dressed up as an experiment, is sure of a welcome somewhere in our educational world.

No one, however, has suggested that we try the experiment of omitting education altogether. Yet, it would be interesting to observe a whole society like our own operating without any of what might be called formal training. Our society, which has advanced so much farther than any other in the direction of universal education, would seem to offer an unrivalled opportunity for comparison. Furthermore, it should not be difficult to arouse support for such a venture. Taxpayers, both heavy and light,

would probably contemplate the savings in taxes with considerable pleasure; and American children would be certain to anticipate the prospect with even greater joy. Indeed, the experimentalists themselves might be tempted to endorse the scheme for its very magnitude. Certain educational theorists might see in it the prospect of realizing to the full ideas for which they have struggled—for example, an uninhibited child-centered childhood assured to every young American. There might, of course, be one drawback in the minds of the experimentalists. It would require at least a generation before the results would be significant, and it might, therefore, be necessary to maintain the experimenters in a state of suspended animation during the interval—perhaps by preserving them in liquid air. But there are doubtless some persons who would not regard even this difficulty as insuperable. In short, it might be possible to arouse a very considerable support for such an experiment. Certainly it would rank as the world's greatest experiment in education—another appealing reason for undertaking it.

ABANDONMENT OF EDUCATION

NOT many persons are aware that such an experiment *has* been tried, or so nearly tried that most of the consequences can be anticipated with a high degree of certainty. Few realize that a society quite as large as our own, with as many or more people and with a culture or civilization in some respects as high or higher, once gave up schools and educational work.

The purposes of education in our changing world are the subject of endless debate. Some essential values may stand out more clearly through the consideration of medieval society which through many centuries lacked a system of academic education. Dr Krey, professor of history in the University of Minnesota, is concerned with the abandonment of schools rather than with apprenticeship, and chiefly with the period before the rise of universities.

True, the circumstances surrounding the occurrence did not perfectly meet all demands of the suggested experiment. In the first place, the venture was not undertaken deliberately as a social and educational experiment. In the second place, education was not given up all at once. In the third place, there were a few isolated spots in which education was not quite entirely abandoned. Yet these spots were so few, the amount of education they preserved so meager, and the absence of education over the rest of the area so complete that perhaps the most exacting experimentalist will admit that the results obtained tend to indicate the probable consequences of a more perfect experiment.

I am referring, of course, to the Roman Empire, or rather to that portion of it lying west of the Greek peninsula, though that peninsula itself might very well be included. That Rome did once have widespread education every school boy who ever divided Gaul into three parts or castigated Catiline with the blistering rhetoric of Cicero has good reason to suspect. That it was good as well as widespread is further attested by the fact that before the first century *anno Domini* was ended, the conquered provinces, Spain and Gaul, were already contributing leaders to Roman literature. Northern Africa and Britain, too, reflected the efforts of Roman educators. Theirs was not a system of compulsory education in our sense, or even one of public education. Most of the training was offered by private teachers, though the municipalities seem to have contributed to the support of the schools; and from the time of Quintilian we find emperors, too, devoting funds to the same purpose. Education was being carried on in the army and in rural districts, but its chief center was in the towns. During the century or more which spans the golden and silver ages of Latin literature, interest in education ran deep and wide through the population of Rome.

I must leave to students of ancient history

the task of explaining just how the Romans who occupied the Italian peninsula south of the Apennines succeeded in spreading education throughout conquered territory with a population and an extent many times greater than that of the conquerors. The undertaking was so thoroughly successful, however, that its effects are still noticeable in the language of the people living in most of this region today.

YET those same Romans, after accomplishing this miracle of education, after assimilating this vast barbarous population to their own culture, gave up their educational efforts. The steps in this process of abandonment are numerous, many of them probably scarcely perceptible. Those, too, fall largely in the field of the ancient historian, and I shall, therefore, not attempt to indicate them in detail here. It is possible, however, to follow the decline of education step by step from the second century to the sixth, when the end was complete.

We can see the process of decay most clearly revealed in the career of Apollinaris Sidonius, who lived in Gaul from about 430 to 490 A.D. His family was one of the great landed nobility of the region. His father, his grandfather, and ancestors even more remote had climbed the ladder of Roman imperial administration to the prefecture of Gaul. That was the career to which he too aspired and for which he was educated. To judge from his writings, he enjoyed his school days and was proud of his learning. Though he did enter the administrative service and actually became prefect himself, he found time to write literature as well as to read it. Many of his letters and poems have been preserved as representing the best literature of his time. His political activity took him to the very center of imperial affairs. He was at Rome during the brief period when his father-in-law, Avitus, was emperor, and later he was prefect of Rome under the emperor Anthemius.

There is little evidence in his writings that he thought anything wrong with the edu-

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educational system of the day. In the letter in which he invited his old school teacher to spend a summer at his country estate he seems to take the educational system for granted. Among his own political activities there were several strenuous and, on the whole, successful efforts to prevent the levying of taxes upon the people of his class, but there was evidently no connection in his mind between this reluctance and education. He deplores the fact that not all members of his class show a proper interest in either politics or learning and that there is little learning among those who surround the Visigothic chieftain. The most striking sign of the times, however, is afforded by his interest in his son's education to which he alludes in his letters. We find him apparently trying to help teach his boy himself. Whether he did this because he liked to do so, or because the teachers were no longer good, or because he could find no satisfactory teachers is not clear. Perhaps all three of these factors played a part. At any rate the boy was not well educated.

THE process of abandonment of education was virtually complete by 600 A.D., and our evidence can be drawn from the greatest scholars of the day. Italy had no greater mind nor one more cultivated than that of Pope Gregory I. He was still aware that there were rules of grammar, but he was no longer able to follow them too closely. The greatest scholar in Gaul, so far as we know, was Gregory, Bishop of Tours, who apologizes for the poor writing of his ecclesiastical history because "culture was on the wane or rather perishing," and no accomplished writer could any longer be found in all Gaul.

The most pathetic evidence of the decline, however, is afforded in the career of Isidore of Seville, the most learned man in Spain of that time. Braulio, a bishop of Spain, wrote to Isidore asking him to provide men like himself with a work which would furnish knowledge on all subjects. If the request seems astonishing, how much

more so must be Isidore's unhesitating compliance with it! Isidore found time, in the spare moments which his duties as bishop of Seville permitted, to complete the work within a few years. When Braulio had received it, he wrote that a frequent reading of this book would leave the reader "ignorant of neither Divine nor human learning." It was an encyclopedia, and the whole in about the space of an ordinary textbook.

If these three men represented the most highly educated group of the time, what must have been the condition of the rest? Towns were no longer offering education, the state no longer supported it, nor were private individuals of any class maintaining teachers. Very few monasteries, still fewer bishoprics, were even making a pretense of education except in the forms of priestly practice, and that chiefly by imitation and by ear. Academic education had practically been abandoned. Book learning had ceased to be.

THE books, however, were still there. So far as we know, there were many collections of books at the time, enough to provide Italy, Gaul, Spain, northern Africa, and Britain with nearly all the valuable literature and learning of the ancient world. They merely were not used. People among whom they existed did not know how to use them. Worse still, they were probably unaware that the books contained anything that could possibly be of value to them. The books, therefore, were regarded as outmoded furniture, and, like other old furniture, they were exposed to the customary forces of attrition, dust, vermin, and ignorance, passive or active. For most of the collections of books in these regions this process of neglect had started long before 600 A.D. Thereafter it merely proceeded with accelerated force.

LIFE WITHOUT BOOKLEARNING

LET us observe next what happened under such conditions to ordinary activities of society—to processes of government, for

example. Government was in the hands of the military, chiefly of Teutonic origin. Their military training even under the Romans did not include academic education. Now even their Roman advisers and lieutenants had none.

The kings therefore were unaware of any good reason why they should not divide their kingdoms among their sons, of whom they usually had several. Nor did the vassals of these sons see any reason why they themselves should not rule over their own districts at will, deferring at first to occasional military demands from their superiors. Their immediate subjects, in turn, took the same attitude toward them, until the whole region tended to be governed by the physically most powerful individual in each small neighborhood. His active life was spent in maintaining his control over the locality and in resisting all efforts of similar individualists to encroach upon his sovereignty. Thus, society had reached the rock bottom of dispersion of political authority. It was almost at the lowest point which could support a single person whose chief concern was to keep from supporting himself.

This state of affairs required constant fighting, whether against those whom the local lord forced to work for him or against neighboring rivals. Neighborhood and private warfare became chronic. The pages of Gregory of Tours show how far government in Gaul had already moved in this direction before 600 A.D., and there is no reason for assuming that conditions in Italy, Spain, and northern Africa were much different. This tendency increased after 600 A.D. Either superior force or organized persuasion might have prevented it from reaching its logical conclusion, but the superior force did not appear. The possibility of persuading the individual fighters that they might enjoy more and greater material blessings, if they yielded some of their individual sovereignty for the sake of wider cooperation, was also missing, for that kind of persuasion presupposed education. And

now, men no longer knew of conditions before their own parents' days and doubtless assumed that existence had always been just as they were finding it in their own lifetime.

In any consideration of human activities, it is natural to consider government and law in sequence. During the centuries under examination, justice was of a summary kind administered arbitrarily by the fighting head of the community. The sword or battle-ax took the place of the imperial code, and, even where the weapon was not directly employed, the threat of its use was always present. Precedents were invoked when remembered, though not many were remembered for more than two generations, and even then were not allowed to interfere seriously with the wishes of the local lord. Law books, like other books, still existed, but nearly all were allowed to gather dust. The legal profession disappeared from western Europe. Those who would contemplate a society without lawyers can obtain almost a full measure of their desire vicariously by gazing upon the history of western Europe during the next five centuries. Administration was conducted without record. Usually the local lord was able to forget all dues which he owed and to remember all those due him. In case of disputed recollection, his memory was usually decisive.

ECONOMIC and social life as well as law were at the mercy of the strong arm, thick neck, and low brow. Since each locality lived in a state of constant suspicion of its neighbors, usually in the more acute forms of fear or anger, there could be little effective intercourse between even immediate neighborhoods. Each community had therefore to provide for all its own needs and learn to live on what the neighborhood produced. City life was impossible on any large scale. Perhaps it is more correct to say that it ceased. In some places, as in Rome, large areas of the city were levelled and converted into arable land. Probably most of the larger towns with walls and monumental buildings were thus trans-

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formed into small self-sufficient communities like the more rural areas. Smaller towns, especially those which had grown up to supply the luxuries of life around natural baths or in the hills, were completely abandoned. Even before the close of the sixth century forests had invaded such places as St Columban found when he established his monasteries at Anagray and Luxeuil in eastern Gaul. Commerce dwindled to such commodities as could be carried in a pack, or ceased altogether.

Those who today cherish the ideal of economic self-sufficiency or the totalitarian state would have found their ideal almost as fully in operation as it has ever been in a society that once was civilized. Each neighborhood virtually had to provide for all its needs complete within its own confines. Food, of course, received first attention. The soil was either turned to satisfy the full range of required crops, or the people were forced to modify their needs to accord with the natural production.

AGRICULTURE confined to local neighborhoods for centuries may afford the modern geneticist more food for thought than it gave the medieval peasant for sustenance. The relation of harvest to seed was pitifully small. Centuries later, when life had become somewhat more settled and interchange of ideas less confined, it was still deemed proper to reckon five families of peasants or serfs necessary to supply the family of one knight or fighting man. Animals, like grain and other agricultural crops, were dependent upon local strains for their perpetuation. Only a successful foray upon the stock of the nearest neighbors afforded any opportunity for cross breeding. And since most of the cattle had to be slaughtered each fall because there was not fodder enough to tide them over the winter, it must have been a strain, often too great a strain, on the spirit of self-denial to preserve the best for breeding. Four centuries of more or less haphazard inbreeding must have resulted in kinds of

livestock, grains, fruits, and other foodstuffs quite unlike those to which we are accustomed today. The miniatures of the early middle ages which depict cattle much smaller than human beings may in many instances have been much more literally accurate than most of us have supposed. Whether human stature also was affected by the character of the food produced under these conditions is a question which the absence of any large suits of armor in European museums would seem to answer in the affirmative. The small yields of various kinds of foodstuffs, together with the uncertain and inadequate means of preserving any except the hardest for even a few months, gave the average community a very slender margin of safety in unfavorable seasons. It is probably for this reason that famines are among the most common calamities recorded in the meager chronicles of the time—death-dealing famine in one neighborhood, when others not more than a hundred miles away might be enjoying relative plenty.

Social life became restricted, not merely because intercourse was confined to small neighborhoods, but even more because most available energy was absorbed in providing the elemental necessities.

At least 80 per cent of the population was engaged in agriculture, most of it on a semi-servile basis. The serfs had to till the fields, contribute labor, and in their spare moments repair houses, tools, and furniture as well as share in the task of making various articles of wear. The lot of the women was, of course, more arduous than that of the men. They were all expected to marry. When married, they regularly bore as many children as it was biologically possible to do. They prepared the food for their families, also most of the clothing. They often helped with the work in the fields, and contributed labor to the local lord. They did not know what it was to suffer from unemployment. There was work enough for them to fill every hour of the waking day. Probably the only relief from

unremitting toil they enjoyed was afforded by religious celebrations, and it required a long hard struggle by the clergy to insure even this.

THE remaining less than 20 per cent of the population included the fighters and the clergy. To gain a bare living, the average priest probably had to supplement the thin offerings of his flock with his own labor. Meanwhile professional duties were probably in great demand, for, in addition to the formal church services, he had also to minister to the sick and the needy and the dying. Baptism, marriage, and burial, certainly the first and last, made more frequent demands upon his time than in more modern periods. And the priesthood was much less numerous than it later became.

As for that fraction of the population which constituted the fighters, life was not much more leisurely. Fighting itself occupied a portion of every year, and the preparations for fighting most of the rest of the year. Hunting, which tended to be a monopoly of this group, was less a social diversion than an essential occupation to supply the family table. The care of horses and weapons, the construction and repair of fortifications involved an amount and variety of work which could not all be delegated. Nor can it be forgotten that the main business of this class was hand-to-hand warfare requiring large as well as skilful muscle. Most of their days were probably spent in what today even the most romantically inclined would be forced to describe as manual labor. The wives of these fighters were probably no less occupied than were their husbands, and with cares and duties not much more elegant than those of the peasant women. For the four centuries after 600 A.D. there was no leisure class in this portion of Europe.

CHILDREN were numerous. After they were weaned there was probably little interference with their activities by their parents, and there were no teachers. So far

as the child was concerned, he could live a perfectly child-centered, non-inhibited existence. He was free to follow his own interests until he bumped into someone else, ate poisonous substances, or fell down a well. Many other hazards which beset childhood in those days are indicated by the folklore of this period which has come down to us. Comparatively few children survived the period of infancy. Those who did survive were probably soon forced, to the full extent of their physical capacity, into the occupations of their parents. Fewer still reached adult age to beget children of their own. Those who did had run the gauntlet of all the ills and accidents to which an unguided life could subject them.

Let the eugenists find what comfort they can in the thought that for several centuries only the physically fit survived and begot children. If such is their dream of an ideal society, they will find it to have been nearly realized in western Europe in the four or five centuries after 600 A.D.

THERE were no sweeping epidemics of disease. Medical history which recounts the sweep of the plague over the Mediterranean world in the sixth century must wait until the fourteenth before it finds an epidemic of equal scope. This does not, however, betoken the absence of disease of epidemic potentialities. It merely reflects the lack of extensive intercourse among the peoples of Europe. Doubtless most of the diseases known in that region today occurred then. The method of warfare in an age in which antisepsis was unknown permitted the prevalence of all the ills invited by open wounds. In addition, there was a host of diseases, now almost unknown, like St Anthony's Fire which resulted from the consumption of tainted food. Other afflictions which thrive on insanitary conditions of living, chiefly of skin and scalp, were much more common then than now. The epidemics that did occur soon spent themselves within restricted areas. The incidence of disease, however, was probably greater

than it had been before or was to be later, and there were probably few persons who passed middle age without exhibiting some of the deformities of tooth or limb which untreated illness so often leaves.

Medicine was practised, but not studied. The rough surgery of the battle field was usually performed by amateurs. Fevers and pains were usually subjected to treatment which such herbs and medicaments as feminine folklore reputed to be beneficial. Superstitious beliefs and practices were, however, the common resort of most people for most ailments. Our best glimpse into the medical practice of these centuries is afforded by that curious volume in the Rolls Series entitled *Anglo-Saxon Leechdom, Starcraft and Wortcunning*. As the title indicates, astronomical phenomena were thought to be as efficacious in their influence on health and disease as on the processes of agriculture.

Theology was but little known. The offices of the church were conducted, in many instances, on the basis of imitation alone and the verbal formulae were repeated with awed reverence, if not accuracy. Bishops were often no more enlightened than priests. In Gaul, where before the end of the sixth century it had become customary to choose bishops without regard to their knowledge of theology, the priests under such supervision found little incentive or opportunity to increase their own knowledge. Direct inspiration was doubtless relied upon by many in emergencies, and they were thus ill fitted to oppose those individuals who professed to have been divinely called to practise religion in various capacities. Such individuals continued to appear here, there, and elsewhere, more or less sincere in their belief in their mission, and more or less successful in gaining adherents.

Other aspects of culture underwent changes as important as those which have been mentioned, though there is less direct testimony about these variations. Doubtless some literature was produced, although the lack of leisure allowed little

time either for its production or consumption. What there was must have been preserved, as well as communicated, orally. This may be inferred from the popular literature like *Beowulf*, the *Nibelungenlied*, and the *Chanson de Roland* which a later, more literate, age put into writing. The circulation of this material, however, must have been seriously impeded by diversities in language. Whatever progress had been made under Roman rule toward the development of a common language had been entirely checked, or rather reversed. Language continued to change, but its change was determined by the populace, not by a learned group. Each community developed its own idioms, its own variations of vocabulary and pronunciation to suit its own needs and circumstances. After four centuries of such development persons living, in some cases, not many miles apart found it almost impossible to understand one another. These local dialects—themselves the product of the isolation which political organization brought about—were, in turn, to serve as the greatest obstacle to wider unification, when that again became possible.

IF this general statement of conditions which followed the sixth century, when formal education had been virtually abandoned, seems somewhat extreme, it would not be difficult to substantiate it by instances of actual occurrence in some portion of western Europe throughout these centuries. Those times and places when conditions were better, as in Gaul under Charlemagne, in Germany and Italy under Otto the Great, and in Britain under Alfred, may almost be dismissed as exceptions. Historians have been so intent upon tracing the beginnings of more modern culture and institutions that these exceptional instances have loomed disproportionately large and have distorted our views of the actual conditions. Institutionally and culturally the exceptions are the more important of course, but how quickly did Gaul revert to its

former ways after Charlemagne, and Germany after Otto the Great! If we view this development without the bias of interest in more modern civilization, we can not escape the essential correctness of the conditions here described.

EXCEPTIONS TO THE GENERAL CONDITIONS

AT this point, it is well to remember that the experimental conditions of a society without any education were not perfect. There were from the outset a few isolated spots in which education had not been completely abandoned. We need not concern ourselves with the persistence of education in the eastern Mediterranean or even with its revival among the Mohammedans who swept around the southern Mediterranean and well up into Spain. Neither of the states involved was in a position to extend its educational work west or north, and the religious differences only served to accentuate the barrier between them and western Europe. Both Constantinople and Bagdad, Byzantium and the Caliphate, may, therefore, safely be ignored as active factors in our problem during the four centuries just described.

We can not, however, ignore two other spots, southern Italy and Ireland. The work of old Cassiodorus illustrates how formal education barely escaped complete extinction in Italy and adjacent regions. After a full life as a sort of prime minister for several Gothic kings, he sought to end his years on his estate in southern Italy. Piously he built on his estate two monasteries, one for old men like himself, the other for younger men. Doubtless he expected to spend his last years in reading and in edifying conversation with his old cronies, but, when he gathered his young men together in the other monastery, he found many of them were practically illiterate. Instead of a life of leisure, he found himself faced by the task of becoming a schoolmaster. Undaunted he set to work to prepare primary textbooks for these men, even writing a little textbook on orthography.

IT is a common notion, for which there is little support, that the rising Christian Church stood eagerly by to grasp the torch of learning from the faltering hand of the dying Empire and thus saved it for future centuries. We forget that until after 300 A.D. Christianity was a forbidden religion and that the chief work of conversion of the Romans in the West was done after that time. People came into the church already educated. The experience of Ambrose, Jerome, and Augustine, who were fully educated before they took up the religious life, is typical. The priests of the time confined their educational efforts to instruction in religion, spiritual and moral. That they must some day also undertake instruction in letters probably did not occur to them. Even as late as the sixth century education in letters was still assumed to be a secular function, of the state rather than of the church. Such had been the view even of Cassiodorus when, as prime minister, he addressed edicts to town authorities requesting them to pay the salaries of grammarians and rhetoricians. That the church finally assumed an interest in common education was in no small measure due to examples like that which he himself afforded in his later days. His almost accidental discovery of the illiteracy of the young men in his monastery and the providential extension of his life were factors largely responsible for bringing the problem to the attention of at least some of the churchmen. What he did, the kind of textbooks and educational treatises which he wrote, do not impress us today. But his efforts represented the best that an old man who had never been a school teacher could do. Perhaps his work was not much more than the feeble recollection of the educational process through which he had passed as a youth. Even so, however, it was dynamic in its effect and was to point the way for centuries. A generation after the death of Cassiodorus, Gregory the Great sent the monks of Monte Cassino to carry on his work among the heathen Anglo-Saxons.

NOT less important was the work of the Irish. This non-Roman people had become converted to Latin Christianity at least a century and a half before the death of Cassiodorus. The introduction of this religion carried with it the obligation to teach Latin and Greek letters as well as theology. As a result, while the Roman world was abandoning education, the Irish were taking it up, so that by the time of Cassiodorus the Irish had already acquired as much or more learning than Cassiodorus still remembered. Had the Irish kept these blessings to themselves, we might disregard their work outside the Roman world. As is well known, however, the Irish took up both the religion and education with enthusiasm. Their zeal was too great, their altruism too expansive for them to confine their efforts to Ireland alone. They carried both their religion and their education, first to Great Britain and then to the Continent of Europe, even to northern Italy.

THE heathen Anglo-Saxons who felt the impact of both forces, from Italy as well as from Ireland, were fired to similar endeavor, as Bede and Boniface and Alcuin so brilliantly testify. But it is unnecessary to trace that development in detail. It is a familiar story which every textbook in medieval history repeats, for it throws light on modern institutions of learning and intellectual activity.

By the end of the eleventh century, contact with the Byzantine and even Moslem East was again established. The churchmen, who thus far had carried the burden of education alone, now received substantial help in their task from merchants also. The advance made by the thirteenth century has justly commanded the enthusiastic admiration of all later ages. More was to follow in the next two centuries at the end of which exploration had extended men's knowledge to the ends of the earth. Viewed solely in terms of its own development, this educational effort is marvelously impressive. Apparently its influence is to be seen and felt

in ever widening and deepening circles.

From that point of view, the two centers in which education had not been completely abandoned had been influential indeed—had in fact damaged the perfection of our experiment considerably.

THE RECOVERED LEARNING

ADMITTING this impairment, however, let us make an inventory of the extent to which, as a result of all this effort, learning and civilization had been recovered. Let us start with theology. This was the chief interest of the scholars who followed the work of Cassiodorus and the Irish. It was the subject to which they devoted their most strenuous labors. Yet it was not until the time of Anselm of Canterbury, at the very end of the eleventh century, that leading theologians clearly perceived that the *Magna Moralia* of Gregory the Great did not meet all the demands of theology. A century and a half later, it was commonly recognized that the great church fathers of the fourth and early fifth century had not completed their work, that they had been intent primarily upon the establishment of the separate items of doctrine. The work of fitting these separate items into a consistent statement of theology still remained to be done. This was the work of the great theologians of the thirteenth century and was most nearly achieved in the *Summa Theologica* of Thomas Aquinas, who died in 1274. By the end of the thirteenth century, they had caught up fully with the great fathers of the fourth century, and in their knowledge of supporting philosophy had reached back to the days of Aristotle and Plato. Thus the systematic organization of theology which might normally have been accomplished within a single generation, two at the most, after Augustine, if education has not been abandoned, had to wait nearly eight hundred years.

Teaching was naturally a close second to theology in the concern of the scholars of these centuries. Yet it was not until the time of John of Garland in the thirteenth

century that teachers composed textbooks better than those Cassiodorus wrote or recommended. And it was not until the time of Vittorino da Feltre and Guarino of Verona, two centuries later, that they devised a system of instruction as good as, or better than, that of Quintilian, the best of the Roman educators. That represents an interval of more than thirteen hundred years.

The book of ready reference, the encyclopedia, for which Bishop Braulio felt the need in the time of Isidore of Seville, continued to be needed through all this period. No one was able to provide a better reference manual until the Dominican Vincent of Beauvais, royal librarian and tutor for the children of Louis IX of France, compiled his *Speculum Mundi* about the middle of the thirteenth century. It should be said that in this achievement he had the help of many bright young Dominicans who were studying in Paris, perhaps St Thomas among others. Even so, we must wait three hundred years more before we find an encyclopedist whose knowledge of nature would have commanded the respect of Pliny, from whom Isidore derived much of his lore. That is an interval of more than fourteen hundred years.

Law is another obvious field of scholarly interest. Church law, which was naturally growing during this period, was given its first systematic treatment by Gratian in the twelfth century, the more authoritative codification of canon law coming in the thirteenth century with the work of Gregory IX and Boniface VIII. Additions made in the fields of customary and maritime law were being written down in the fourteenth century. In civil law, Justinian's code was not used in full in western Europe until the time of Irnerius in the twelfth century, and it is difficult to say just when Europe had a group of lawyers comparable to that which drew up the Justinian code. Perhaps not until the seventeenth century.

Medicine had again become a subject of study, appearing in Salerno and Montpellier

during the twelfth century, possibly somewhat earlier at Salerno. Yet Galen remained the great authority until the sixteenth century, when we find Vesalius, Fracastoro, and Paracelsus advancing beyond that point. This date marks an interval of more than thirteen hundred years before the best of the Romans was equaled and exceeded.

Thus we might examine what happened to the development of other branches of learning, theoretical and applied, including the practical arts of architecture and agriculture. While these matters were not directly of concern to theology and the schools, yet they were a part of civilization, and the monastic scholars by no means overlooked them. Such a study would demonstrate that in each field there was retardation to equal that which we have observed in theology, teaching, law, and medicine.

In other words, with all the help which the work of these monasteries, the renewal of contact with Constantinople and the East, and the extension of trade around the world could give, it required over a thousand years for people to regain the degree of civilization which they had before they gave up education. And what a millennium that had been! During the first five hundred years there was warfare everywhere and nearly all the time; famine, disease, and chronic afflictions flourished; superstition and blind fears were ready to break out at any time in orgies. When we contemplate these obstacles, the work of the monks, for so many centuries the only agency of enlightenment, assumes its truly heroic proportions. It is little wonder that against such a background the advance which they had achieved by the thirteenth century should have won the extravagant acclaim of nearly every historian who has studied this period.

EXPERIMENT NOT WHOLLY SUCCESSFUL

PERHAPS it would be a little more generous on our part if we could blame the sufferings which our ancestors had to endure during all those centuries upon some

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outside force rather than upon their voluntary abandonment of education. We might, for example, ascribe all that happened to the overwhelming incursion of barbarous invaders. But we are denied this comfort; for, in less than two centuries when education was still being supported, Rome had transformed the semibarbarous inhabitants of all Gaul and Spain and adjacent lands into Latin speaking loyal subjects, leaders of Roman culture in fact. The so-called barbarians with whom Rome dealt in the fifth and sixth centuries were not nearly so numerous as the Gauls and Celt-Iberians had been. Most of them had been in close contact with the Roman Empire since the early fourth century and had lived within the Empire from the early fifth century. During most of this time they were actually in the employ of the Empire and, on the whole, eager and willing to learn its ways. The opportunities for educating these barbarians were vastly superior to those which had confronted the Romans in their dealings with the earlier Gauls, Celt-Iberians and Britons. That this was not done must therefore be regarded as due to lack of wish and purpose.

THE explanation lies not in any overthrow of the Roman Empire, but in the voluntary, if unconscious, abandonment of education. The situation is almost exactly symbolized by the picture of Sidonius, ex-prefect of Gaul and late in life bishop of Clermont, hearing his son recite his lessons. Sidonius and the others of his class were not opposed to education. They were only opposed to taxation. They could, or thought they could, provide the necessary education for their own children, for such had been the policy of their fathers and grandfathers before them. Sidonius was the first of his line to have to educate his son himself, however, and, when he assumed the task, the end was in sight. The leader of the senatorial nobility had taken education, for granted. It had not occurred to them that people can not provide for their own education, that in fact they cannot even provide

for the education of their children except to pay the teachers for the work. The persons who teach children must be of the same generation as the parents and their training must be the task of the grandparents of the pupils. The parents of Sidonius and the senatorial nobility of his time had failed to make that provision. They had done nothing to train teachers, and as a result, when the son of Sidonius was growing up, there were no competent teachers. I sometimes wonder whether this essential fact of education has been pondered as much as it should be today. How many of our curriculum makers realize, in their anxiety to acquaint pupils with immediate current problems, that they are preparing the next generation to deal with the problems of its grandparents, not its own?

It would be strange to think that commands for money to pay teachers and for other needed improvements inclined the nobility to Rome to intrigue for the overthrow of the Ostrogothic administration. If they had hoped thus to avoid taxation, they were soon bitterly disillusioned, for the Greeks to whom Justinian entrusted the administration of Italy proved to be extremely skilful and quite insatiable in their policies for taxation. The Roman nobility turned again to the Ostrogoths, but too late. The devastating wars of the next twenty years made education of any formal kind impossible for most of Italy. It is all the more remarkable that Cassiodorus persisted in his concern about education despite discouragement from members of his own class and despite the ravages of war. That he lived to accomplish what he did was, in light of later events, hardly less than providential.

SUCH is the story of the world's greatest educational experiment. As an experiment it was not perfect because, owing to the efforts of Cassiodorus and the Irish missionaries, it was not quite complete. But, had the experimental conditions been more nearly perfect, perhaps neither you nor I would know about what happened—or care.

Midterm Elections and the Presidency

PEARL OLIVE PONSFORD

THE presidential election of 1936 differed from all preceding ones in that it was the first to follow an administration gain in Congress at the midterm election, for in all previous midterm elections the party whose President occupied the White House either lost control of the House of Representatives altogether or suffered a marked diminution in its representation there. It is natural then that the Democratic gains of 1934 in Congress and the overwhelming presidential victory of 1936 should sharpen interest in the pending midterm election of 1938 as it concerns a prognosis for the political future.

All of this discussion will be confined to a consideration of the lower chamber of Congress since in the House of Representatives all members are elected every two years, while with the six year senatorial term only one third of the members are elected each two years. A similar discussion might be worked out for the Senate, but the adjustments, exceptions, complications, and variations would seem to obscure any real meaning.

A survey of the thirty-eight presidential elections indicates some interesting generalizations that may be significant. With only two exceptions—Washington's second term beginning 1793 and the Taylor-

Fillmore administration in 1849—the party of the President has controlled the House of Representatives at the beginning of each new administration throughout our political history. For the purpose of this discussion the House is considered as belonging to the party strong enough to elect the speaker and other officers, even though the other party may have had an actual majority or plurality. Also the Democratic House of Representatives at the beginning of the Hayes administration has not been counted as an exception on the ground that many leading historians agree that in 1876 the nation really elected Tilden, the Democratic candidate.

FROM 1789 to 1841 the President and the House of Representatives were of the same political complexion in each Congress except the Third Congress at the beginning of Washington's second term; but in the next twenty years five midterm elections gave a majority in the House to the party opposed to the President. As a matter of fact party swings of any kind were infrequent in that period: in 1801 control passed forever from the Federalists to the hands of Jefferson and his party which, although it underwent many changes and adaptations, won most of the federal elections for more than half a century. It lost the Presidency to the Whigs twice: in 1840 when Harrison and Tyler were elected and in 1848 when Taylor and Fillmore were elected. It lost the House of Representatives in four Congresses, or for only eight years—the Twenty-seventh Congress, 1841-43, in the first half

The coming election lends special interest to this account of earlier midterm elections. Dr Ponsford is instructor in history in the Texas College of Mines at El Paso.

of the Harrison-Tyler administration, the Thirtieth, 1847-49, in the last half of Polk's administration, the Thirty-fourth, 1855-57, in the last of Pierce's, and the Thirty-sixth, 1859-61, under Buchanan.

REPUBLICAN control marked the Civil War and Reconstruction period, owing at least in part to the exclusion of the South from representation in Congress. By the election of 1874 the Republicans lost the House and in 1876, according to many historians, lost the Presidency, although in 1878 an electoral commission elected Hayes who became President of the United States.

SINCE 1877 there has been no such nearly unbroken party control. The twenty years from 1877 to 1897 was a period of more nearly even division. Of the five presidential administrations during this period there were the two Republican administrations of Garfield-Arthur and Benjamin Harrison, the two Democratic administrations of Cleveland, and the Republican administration of Hayes in which the Democratic candidate probably was legally chosen in the regular election. In the ten Congressional elections of the same twenty years the Democrats won the House seven times and the Republicans only three. The House of Representatives, therefore, was Republican only during the first half of the Garfield-Arthur administration and that of the Benjamin Harrison administration, 1881-83, and 1889-91, and in the last half of the second Cleveland administration. The rest of the time the House was Democratic.

During the sixteen years from 1897 to 1913 the President was Republican and, aside from the last two years under Taft, the House of Representatives was also Republican.

For the next twenty-eight years, 1913 to 1941, control has been almost evenly divided between the two major parties, as to the Presidency as well as the lower House. Two Democratic Presidents, Wilson and Roosevelt, were each elected for two

terms—sixteen years in all. Three Republican Presidents, Harding, Coolidge, and Hoover, served twelve years. The political complexion of the House of Representatives during these administrations conformed with that of the President with two exceptions. Once, in the latter half of Wilson's second term, 1919-21, the Republicans controlled the House under a Democratic President, and once, in the last half of Hoover's administration, 1931-33, the Democrats controlled the House under a Republican President. The character of the House in the last two years of Roosevelt's present administration is of course still undetermined.

HOUSE LOST—PRESIDENCY LOST

HERETOFORE the results of the midterm elections to the House of Representatives have seemed to have a significant bearing on the presidential elections two years later. During the first fifty-one years of the government of the United States under the present Constitution the party of the President in no case lost the House at the midterm elections; but since then the party of the President has lost the House thirteen times and in each of these times, with only three exceptions, has lost the Presidency at the next election. Are we to regard these precedents as a "rule" in American politics?

Those three exceptions lose some of their force as exceptions when examined more closely.

THE first exception was the election of another Democratic President, Buchanan, in 1856 after the midterm defeat of 1854. It could hardly be expected that the newly formed Republican party could win the presidential election of 1856 within its first two short years of life. Besides it might be argued that the normal expectation based on historical experience should be stated the other way: that we should say that the party in opposition to the President which was able to win the

House in midterm election did in most cases elect the next President. If that revision is accepted—and there is no other case in which it is difficult to accept it—then the issue is clear, for the Republican party did not win the House in 1854. Instead control was won by an Opposition party composed of northern Whigs, Anti-Nebraska Democrats, former American party members, and Free Soilers, and out of the bitter struggles with the President in that Congress, especially over Kansas and the slavery question, crystallized a dominant Republican party. From 1855 to 1857 the situation was so complicated that the *Congressional Globe*, which had customarily indicated political affiliation, omitted any such classification.

EXCEPTIONS two and three fall within the same period, a period which, happily, we are none of us willing to regard as politically typical. These two instances are the election of another Republican President, Hayes, after the Republican midterm defeat of 1874, and, four years later, of Garfield in 1880 after the Republicans lost the House in 1878.

If one accepts the reading of history which maintains that Tilden was really elected in 1876, this exception is disposed of right there—Republican defeat at midterm congressional election and Republican defeat of its presidential candidate two years later. If, however, one accepts that election on its face as the election of a Republican President, one can still hardly regard as typical the political situation of 1874 with the revulsion of feeling against appalling political corruption, the prevailing attitude toward the membership of the Southern Republican party composed of ignorant, inexperienced Negroes, "carpet-baggers," and "scalawags," the Republican control of the South, and the sufferings from the panic of 1873.

The third exception, the election of Garfield in 1880 after the midterm defeat of the Republicans in 1878, is more diffi-

cult to dispose of. In passing it might be pointed out that that election of 1880 was the closest of all presidential elections from the standpoint of the electoral votes cast. It has been said that the Republicans won partly because the Democratic Congress antagonized the electorate by its bitter fight against Hayes. It was the first time in twenty years that both houses of Congress had been Democratic! In any case, the circumstances of the midterm election of 1878 after the exhibition of devious politics in 1876 and 1877 can not be counted as typical.

Even if one insists on regarding the election of 1880 as an entirely valid exception—and one can hardly go as far as that—it still remains true that in the past the outcome of the midterm election has been a very accurate index to show which way the next presidential election will go.

PRESENT PROSPECTS

NOW a new factor has appeared. Never before the present administration has a President's party actually increased its lead in Congress at a midterm election. Although it is of course impossible to make a generalization based on only one example, it is nevertheless obviously true that in the one case—the midterm election of 1934—in which the President's party was able to increase its majority, it did win the following presidential election by a tremendous majority and did increase its already very great majority in the lower House.

In the coming midterm election will the electorate add still another victory to the three increasingly successful elections in the immediate past of the Democratic party? Will it increase the already huge majorities in Congress? What will be the influence of another Democratic victory on a possible third term? Is this the beginning of a new "rule" or trend in American politics for political prognosis? Or ought we be reminded that the notable electoral majorities of Buchanan and Hoover were followed by long dry spells for the parties that rolled them up?

Nature of Social Problem Study

DONNAL V. SMITH

PROGRESSIVE education rests upon the proposition that learning is a continuous reconstruction of individual experiences. For this reason the school, as an educational organization, must be more than merely a place to which children are sent to memorize facts. Instead of being a place to study *about* life it must be an integral part of the child's normal social life, as natural to him as his most basic primary relations. It is, therefore, necessary for the school to be established along such lines as will enable every child in it to develop as rapidly and as fully as his own capacity permits. In order to make such progress, the learning opportunity afforded by the school must be directly and intimately associated with activities carried on by individuals, with more or less success, of their own accord and initiative, inde-

pendent of school or the educational system.

Failing in this, education, instead of being an opportunity for growth, becomes merely another external pressure capable of achieving only external and insignificant results. At such times as the external pressure coincides with individual interests and action some benefit may be derived, but, whenever it does not, there will be no individual growth. Indeed there may be positive harm.

Social study has too often been dictated and arbitrary, providing little or no evidence that it has effectively developed an understanding of the social issues with which every individual is confronted. For some time this failure, when actually recognized by educators, has been said to be due to the amount of subject matter studied or the method employed in its presentation. Actually, however, the fault lies in the philosophy of education rather than in method.

In any educational opportunity both subject matter and method are of vital importance, but, if the fundamental purpose of education is unsound, no amount of subject matter or so-called "right" practice will correct it. If social study has as its ultimate aim merely acquiring a recall ability of facts that have been learned, no assurance at all can be offered that it affords any training for intelligent citizenship—manifested in a willingness to assume responsibilities for its duties as well as proper acceptance of its rights.

In order to make school life valuable individual experience leading to better living,

The teaching of modern problems, contemporary civilization, and current events, whether in separate courses or in connection with familiar subjects, with or without attention to generalizations or "social processes"—all testify to widespread recognition that in a democracy youth must study the issues of our time. Alternative approaches, their common underlying philosophy, and some aspects of method are considered by a professor of history in the New York State College for Teachers, Albany, who is also active in the state curriculum revision program for both the elementary and secondary schools.

its program must afford, among other things, abundant opportunity for developing the ability to read and think about contemporary social issues, to observe and analyze the functions of government and other social institutions, and, above all, to acquire a habit and skill in critical evaluation of individual and group practice, recognizing the values of precedent yet cognizant of the inexorable demands for change occasioned by complex social relations. This means that in the school of today children must be equipped with more desirable attitudes toward the present world of affairs and must develop a conviction that it is an inescapable duty to participate in the constructive solution of social problems. To develop increasing ability to meet this responsibility, adults must be acquainted with sources and materials, and with methods of reading, and must possess a background of fundamental information that will make broad issues more understandable and so further the possibility of satisfactory arrangement.

COMMISSION ON THE SOCIAL STUDIES

TO this end the report of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association has offered its valuable recommendations. Very definitely the conclusions of the commission recognize the efficacy of sound study of social problems and recommend that in the secondary school the central theme be the development of mankind and the evolution of human culture in which these problems are set.

The social learning program should culminate, the commission concluded, in the study of the major movements in social thought and action in the modern world and the most recent developments on the international stage.

Only by employing concrete living materials, the facts and influences of regional geography, comparative economics, social control through government, and cultural sociology can a realistic study of American

institutions and culture be established. Such bodies of knowledge, of course, include the corruptions and conflicts, the paradoxes and contradictions as well as the achievements generally recognized. Great theories, philosophies and social programs of the past, however radical or conservative they may appear now, are drawn upon whenever they shed some ray of light on the growing tensions of modern society.

UNDERSTANDING SOCIAL ISSUES

OBVIOUSLY merely noting current events cannot be construed to be a study of social problems. The deeper meanings which give valuable explanations for contemporary affairs must be searched for. The commission carefully indicated that every topic of instruction in social study contains many aspects. Among the aspects of every problem appear such significant features as place relations, time sequence, continuity with other events, relations to other ideas, action by human beings, and applications of life situations. Hence, it must be noted that the study of social problems must recognize that even those subjects which appear simple are in fact complex and capable of infinite development. While recognizing the philosophy of social change, with the implications for the study of social problems, the procedure likewise must develop a grasp of the principle of continuity, an understanding that no social problem exists in isolation. To understand the implications of social change compels acceptance of this principle of continuity. Since no event is without its related antecedents and consequences, social problems emerge from broad study rather than from a narrow, circumscribed recitation, from the realism that is established by understood relations rather than from a verbalized statement of isolated events even though they are current events.

A conception such as this circumvents the possibility of concluding that the use of the term *problem*, which was borrowed from the more exact sciences, implies abso-

lute solution. If social problems are handled this way, their study will prove utterly futile so far as better social understanding is concerned. Since there is no way to determine by experimental proof the "answers" to social problems, "right" answers cannot be determined until the social problem has been met. Then general social approval may proclaim the answer "right," but the problem has ceased to exist. To assume that social problems are capable of exact solution through didactics causes remarks like that of the adolescent who informed his parent that today his class had solved the farm problem and tomorrow they would solve the labor problem.

If social problems are understood to be broad issues involving many significant aspects of indirect relations and primary group action, it is clearly understandable that their study is not a pursuit to be encouraged only for less gifted children. To recognize and pursue an interest in social problems is itself a mark of intelligence, and, since individuals vary widely in intellectual development, it is to be expected that there will be wide variation in the intensity of interest manifested in social problem study.

It is unwise, therefore, to assume that because many school children are not interested in the formal social disciplines they will be interested in current matters. Children or adults whose interests are narrow and quite personal and whose social environment is poor in cultural and material resources will manifest approximately the same interest or lack of interest for the study of social problems that they manifest for the study of the formal social-subject disciplines.

UNDERSTANDING BASED ON DETAIL

RECOGNITION of this fact has caused many curriculum experts to contend that this is an argument for the retention of formal social-subject disciplines as the organization most likely to produce a

society competent to face the issues of its own existence. Such contention ignores the character of the child mind as well as overlooks the vast body of information covered by the social disciplines known as history, geography, government, economics, and sociology. Actually these subject-matter organizations are all just phases of social relations and are possible only because of the wealth of detail scholars have accumulated up to the present time. To analyze or comprehend them in a limited way requires a lifetime of careful professional preparation, admittedly impossible in schools for the youth of the country. Since these subjects in their fullness are so full of detail, the common practice is to have *someone* select what are alleged to be the elementary facts and to say that such an arrangement is the best one to insure for youth an understanding of the social issues of his society.

While anyone admits that it is indeed a sure sign of cultural progress that such a wealth of detail exists, no one believes that it is an indication of intelligence to conclude that portions of this wealth of detail are equally valuable for everyone. The disciplines emerged as classified bodies of knowledge only after the detail, and some understanding of the detail, had existed for a considerable period. In other words the classification of social data was possible only *after* the knowledge was gained. For children of limited social experience, owing to their youth, the knowledge does not yet exist and cannot, therefore, be made more real or vital by some artificial classification.

It is possible to study any or all of the data classified as history, sociology, or by any other name, and yet not understand social issues. This in no wise endangers the cultural existence of the major disciplines of social information. Recalling the six aspects of every item to be studied in the social sciences as set forth by the Commission on the Social Studies, we see clearly that social problems are understood only in the light of their background of develop-

ment and their relation to events and ideas of social theory and practice today. Hence, should the major disciplines be ignored and completely forgotten, it is very probable that youth emerging into the maturity of experience would soon reestablish a similar classification of their information.

Should it be contended that the subject disciplines supply the pupil the facts from which social generalizations are made, it must be pointed out that the conclusion of the psychologists that generalizations are the result of experience does not mean that a generalization can be broken down into steps or parts that, if experienced by another, would result in the same generalization. The generalization comes only after experience is acquired and every new experience influences the generalization. Hence, with regard to social issues individuals react in ways determined by their past experience. If issues have never been faced in youth, they will be faced in later life, if recognized at all, with but little more skill than would have been shown years before.

UNDERSTANDING BASED ON SYNTHESIS

SOME students of social affairs conclude that because the major disciplines do not quite meet the needs of inexperienced youth the difficulty rests in the lack of synthesis. Professor Clark Wissler, in his *Man and Culture*, therefore, seeks to determine a pattern for civilization within which all experience can be allocated.¹ Professor Charles Horton Cooley saw sociology as such a synthesis. Lately Leon C. Marshall and Rachel Marshall Goetz advanced the social process as a synthesis. Educators have, from time to time, contended that the whole issue depended on method.

Professor Marshall's fundamental question as stated in a recent article² is, in ef-

¹ New York: Crowell, 1923, chap. v, esp. p. 74.

² See his "Patterns Underlying the Details of Human Living" in *Social Education*, March, 1937, esp. pp. 158-59, 160.

fect: Is it possible, in the seeming confusion of specialized detail, to find simple but far reaching and permanent patterns to facilitate arranging the detail in perspective and order? What detail is to be arranged and in whose perspective and order? Does this question imply that detail is to be acquired and then the perspective and order will appear, or does it mean that details are to be acquired by children according to some predetermined arrangement and then hope that it is in proper perspective?

It seems that all of these arrangements assume the existence of a body of knowledge prior to the individuals knowing it. Any of the classifications undoubtedly have value *after* the experience of the individual has afforded him knowledge to be arranged. No formula has ever been devised that guarantees to the individual understanding and knowledge simply because facts have been memorized in a particular sequence. The fundamental question for the school still remains, and it is how can the school collect and organize resources so that learning opportunities will be established for every child, in spite of individual differences?

THE philosophy underlying the contemporary problems approach insists that the valuable frame of reference for study materials is the everyday social experience of the students. The other approaches consider the learners *en masse* but actually spend educational effort on compiling such data and experiences which those responsible for a curriculum think all children should have. Instead of arriving at the materials for study through the needs of the child, the old programs arbitrarily set up material for study and then subjected children to it. Any attention directed to contemporary affairs was included primarily to facilitate the recollection of past events.

The essential value to be emphasized in the problem approach lies in its consideration of the process of learning by children

rather than in material for children to learn. The problem approach recognizes that the attitudes, skills, appreciations, and generalizations, commonly accepted as desirable, do not grow out of the study of social-subject matter merely because of the nature of the material. If the material studied is to be useful and beneficial to the child, its organization must center about and be related to the experiences of the child in the world that is significant to him, immediate in its demands and not remote in time.

TRAINING IN MATERIALS

IN still another way the problems approach offers an advantage not very likely to occur in the more conventional program. In the world at large the information designed to influence thought concerning contemporary issues is seldom found arranged in neatly organized disciplines and textbooks. Usually pamphlet and platform present the first treatment of issues. Governmental and private agencies in vast number supply the general public with reading materials, pro and con. The commercial magazines and newspapers are among the first to advance ideas and opinions. Much of their story is pertinent, some viciously false, and all of it must be checked and rechecked. To do so requires the use of periodical guides and checklists, statistical abstracts and almanacs, dictionaries and encyclopedias. To employ these sources is itself a skill which seems best acquired when social study is organized in such a way that skill develops by systematic and purposeful use.

CURRENT EVENTS?

SOMETIMES teachers contend that the values just outlined can be gained by a study of current events one day a week. Usually such exercises are in no sense of the word a study of social issues. Group interest is apt to be small and the data itself unimportant because of the unrelated character of the items presented or their

irrelevance as unconnected incidents. This does not prove that children are unable to select wisely the news reports; it merely indicates the lack of plan or purpose.

Sometimes in an attempt to improve upon the current-events-day technique teachers employ the so-called school newspaper. Some of these school papers claim to present accounts of selected news items written in simple language suitable to adolescent understanding. As a matter of fact they are merely predigested news items, selected by a newspaper man and said to be the important events of the week. As such they may have a place, but they do not really meet the social issues or make them clear until they are studied in their broader aspects. At best such items are simply one of many sources to be employed, but not the basis for an entire program.

Some teachers employ this type of material because of a more or less popular misconception that children do not read well enough to handle the newspaper in high school. Actually there is no evidence to support such a conclusion. The difficulty is due to the fact that youth needs instruction and practice in reading social subject matter and practice in the employment of intelligent and discriminating criticism of the materials they read. An appetite for predigested news does not foster any genuine regard for such rights as free speech and free press, since neither will long endure if the people are not critical of what they read and hear.

Moreover, all of the argument directed toward the single text is equally applicable to the use of a single class newspaper as a source of current events. If it is worth while to encourage each individual continually to check opinions, refine judgments in the light of subsequent experience, and discuss conclusions intelligently, the more natural the exposure to news sources, the more valuable the exercise will be. Skill in newspaper reading and newspaper selection is certainly worth developing in the social study program of the school.

TRAINING IN CONTROVERSY

A FURTHER advantage apparent in the social problem approach is the study of controversial issues. In dealing with contemporary issues controversy is inevitable. To ignore the controversial issue entirely is to deny youth the opportunity of learning how to meet the difficulties that must be reconciled before there can be satisfactory collective action.

Many schoolmen contend that to include controversial material in the educational program is to invite criticism and jeopardize the confidence of the public in the school. If the public relations of the school are so delicate as to be disturbed because children discuss in school the problems society itself is called upon to face, it must be that there are other questions of school management involved which, if corrected, would increase public confidence in the program of study.

It is precisely the success in meeting controversial issues that will determine the effectiveness of the democratic process. Those issues about which uniform agreement has developed are no longer serious problems and should be studied, if at all, to understand how the agreement was reached. On the other hand, the issues about which there is controversy continually plague society, recurring again and again to demand that social progress await their disposal. To deny youth the opportunity to discuss the issues about which there is controversy is to omit from his training the major questions of the fields of religion, politics, and economics, to send him from the school unaware and unprepared.

FINALLY, there are some teachers who contend that the agitation for the social problem approach is much ado about nothing at all, that they have long since forsaken slavish adherence to textbook or syllabus outlines. It is contended that teachers freely adapt subject matter to the social needs of their children and do not, day by day, feel responsible for drilling facts. The only comment that can be made

here is that in a preliminary report, made late in 1937 by a committee of the National Council for the Social Studies, approximately one half the teachers, in reply to a questionnaire, indicated that they did not have enough *time* to permit the study of current social sources and issues. It must be assumed that their time was directed toward another end, which, it seems highly probable, was concerned with teaching the subject matter of the course of study.

SUMMARY

IN summarizing the advantages of the social-problems course it must appear that citizenship training necessitates method and practice in meeting great social issues. Secondly, it is inevitable that meeting such issues will involve the study and application of such information and past experience as will further understanding. Hence, the various organized bodies of social knowledge will be utilized. Thirdly, unless the problems study wishes to do as Professor Morrison charged, "Lead pupils into dark holes and blow out the candles," social issues must be much more than merely trivial comment upon current events. Social issues which stimulate thought and discussion are more than just a study period or a series of recitation hours—they are a part of education as a process, developing a way of living and thinking. Fourthly, while it cannot be argued that the study of social problems will result in the solution of these problems, it is clear that such study is directly a preparation for social participation and most clearly a part of the social existence of the child as a factor in society.

If we subscribe to democracy as a social ideal and are ready to admit that no person, class or privileged group has a monopoly on wisdom, virtue and knowledge, then it must be agreed that American boys and girls can with profit direct their study to the problems of the social world which they are to carry on as sovereigns, exercising in this endeavor such intelligence and such industry as they possess.

A Modern-Problems Class

ALICE N. GIBBONS

TWO weeks before the close of the fall term, the leading honor student of the class to be graduated the following January said to the head of the social science department that his study of American history had awakened his interest in many public problems and he wished a class might be formed to pursue them further. Since a good many of the graduates were coming back for the spring term, he thought some of them might enjoy a class in which they could study what they pleased and as they pleased. He also suggested that the teacher be considered simply the adviser of the study group, to be consulted only when the students felt the need of guidance. After conference with the principal it was agreed to form such a class even though the nearness of the new term made careful planning impossible.

The class was limited to seniors and postgraduates of at least average grade. When finally registered it contained twenty-seven pupils, three first-term seniors, nine senior

finals, and fifteen postgraduates. Although the first-term seniors and the senior finals were working for credit and the postgraduates were not, the latter formed the strongest element in the class in sustained interest, initiative, and willingness to do hard work. With one exception all students in the class seemed to be carrying equally heavy schedules. Therefore it is an interesting question how much the superior work of the postgraduates was due to a year more in mental development, how much to the fact that they were working voluntarily for interest's sake, and how much to the possible fact that the other pupils were handicapped by awe of postgraduates.

SINCE the class had been formed on the idea that the pupils themselves should take entire charge both as to choice of subject matter and as to its handling, the teacher tried hard to "keep hands off." The first month was rather difficult, because from force of habit the instructor was too frequently making suggestions or corrections, and the pupils were constantly trying to recite to her rather than discuss the problems with each other. Little by little the teacher acquired the habit of noninterference, and a new student habit of independence began to function fairly well. Yet the difficulty of the effort convinced the instructor that, if such practices were to function smoothly in senior year, more interest in the development of such habits and practices was needed for the earlier years of high school training.

The first day the class was told that it

This account of how one able teacher "experimented with" a class in modern problems was written by the former director of the department of social sciences at East High School, Rochester, New York. Other articles in *Social Education* last year by the same author concerning that school were "A Social-Science Laboratory" in January and "An International-Relations Club" in September.

might study anything it pleased in any way it chose so long as the work represented a serious endeavor to understand public problems. The teacher put the titles of six problems on the board and then asked for as many additions as possible. After enough had been given to indicate what kind of subjects interested the class, each pupil was asked to bring in a list, of topics mentioned or new topics, arranged in the order of preference, of any twelve such problems hitherto mentioned.

On the second day the steering committee was elected, and the lists of problem preferences were handed over to it. Then the rest of the hour was spent in an informal discussion of methods for conducting the class and for study. The class decided, first, that the chairman elected for the steering committee should be the permanent administrative class officer, second, that from a list of volunteers he should choose each day a leader for the first ten minutes of current-topics discussion, and, third, that the steering committee should draw up any further rules and should present them to the class for adoption.

SEVENTY-TWO problems had been suggested by the pupils, many of which could be grouped together as subdivisions of a larger problem. Out of these, the thirteen most frequently listed were the ones chosen for the program. For various reasons the order of study of these problems was changed several times after the term started, and one problem not on the original list was added. The list follows: The Radio, Press, and Propaganda in Relation to Public Opinion; Crime; Social Security; The Farmer; Cooperatives; The Tariff; Money, Banks, and You; Balancing the Budget; Leftist Movements: Communism, Socialism, Fascism; Housing Problems; Big Business: Monopolies, Lobbies, Government Control; Recreational Activities for Enforced Leisure; The National Political Situation; The City's Community Chest Problem.

Under the rules adopted for class conduct, it was decided that committees should be in charge of the investigation and class presentation of each problem. Pupils expressed their preference for service on two committees, and the steering committee made the final appointments to committee service. The first task of a new committee was to choose its own chairman, who then assigned the members to special investigations. For instance, when the problem of the farmer was studied, the chairman asked one committee member to report on the relation of the farmer to foreign trade, another on his relation to organized labor, another to the farmer as a consumer. When any chairman found that he had more research topics than he had committee members, he asked the steering committee to assign him more workers. It became the further business of each committee chairman to see that each member did efficient work and that all members were ready to assume charge of the class when it came time for the presentation of their problem.

The method of presentation was left for each chairman to decide. Most, of course, resorted to the time-honored lecture method. A few chose to give informal debates. Two tried to swing a question forum.

METHODS

FROM the first the class was very critical of the lecture method. After the first boring talk, one radical young member suggested that pupils have the right to walk out of class if bored. The steering committee vetoed this proposal but decided that any pupil should have the right to interrupt a speaker with the call "Louder" or to ask that the speaker look at the class rather than down at his notes or at the floor, and also that a long-winded speaker could be checked by the chairman, who could insist that there should be time for questioning before the end of the hour. As the term went on it was interesting to note that, while the pupils always grumbled to each other after class if a speaker bored them, they seldom

gained courage to insist that the speakers do differently. The instructor of the class was the only one who made frequent use of the call "Louder," and the various chairmen were diffident about criticizing the members of their committees. Here surely is a province in which educators need to give young citizens more training, for, if democratic government is going to work efficiently, each individual must feel responsible not only to do superior public service himself but also to try to make others do it.

One chairman made a very good effort at a question forum. The committee problem was "What Are the Advantages of Various Forms of Modern Government?" He assigned to each of the members of his committee one form to investigate fairly thoroughly. Then he made out questions on separate slips of paper and distributed them among the class. When he took charge of the class, he announced: "Today fascism is up for discussion. Our fellow-member, Bill Jones, has made himself somewhat an authority on the working of that form of government. He is ready to answer any questions or to explain anything that is desired. I have distributed some significant questions that may be presented, but, if you do not feel a real interest in the question that is on the slip of paper in your hand, don't ask it. What we want here is a live group of people who ask questions because they want to know." Since the chairman was a "live wire" himself, he made the method work. When another chairman tried the same method for the presentation of his problem, the subject fell rather flat.

Three chairmen gave new-type tests when the class presentation was finished. Papers were exchanged for correction, but the class teacher was not given any standings for recording. In fact no formal tests were given by the teacher during the term, but pupils understood that every one must do enough study or reading on each problem to gain a general knowledge, and that taking notes in class was wise, since there was a final

examination at the end. This examination could not be avoided even if the class wished, for final tests were required by the school for all subjects. For the monthly marks the teacher depended upon her own observations: attention, the intelligent questions, sense of personal responsibility in making the class discussions interesting and valuable, and care in carrying out committee assignments.

PART of the duty of each committee was to post in the social science laboratory, one week before their problem was to be presented, a list of study references for the class as a whole to use. This list consisted not only of books and pamphlets but of good magazine articles available in our laboratory. As it has been our laboratory policy not to bind old magazines but simply to keep them stored for possible use, it became part of the duty of each committee to take out of storage the particular magazines listed and to place them on top of a filing case assigned in our smaller laboratory room. Here also in a basket newspaper clippings were dropped, or any extra material in pamphlet or book form, in which any student thought the class might be interested. Above the filing case was placed a small bulletin board on which the committee chairman or class administrative officer could place any notice or direction he wished to give the class.

Around this filing case and bulletin board one could always, at any hour of the day, find pupils grouped, either quietly searching for study material or discussing in soft voices something that interested them in connection with it. Frequently the teacher noticed one pupil bringing another over to the case to show him where he had found some interesting item. While the "Modern Problems" case in our small laboratory room proved a pleasant meeting place for the interested students, it was a cause of constant irritation to teachers trying to use the room for their own study.

This smaller laboratory room was the

only convenient place available during school hours for class committees to meet to discuss the problem on which they were working, or to consult with their teacher adviser. Also the department typewriter, which was kept in this room, was in steady demand by committee members who wished to put in good form materials intended for posting or distribution to the class. On the other hand the increased clacking of the typewriter at every hour of the day has been a disturbing factor for teacher study. If the "Modern Problems" work is to continue as at first organized, it will make necessary another small room adjoining the social science laboratory for the purposes just described, and for other growing student activities.

THE class showed an eagerness to take investigating tours to see conditions about which they were studying, but arranging a time when many of the group could go was difficult. However, after we had studied the problem of "The Influence of the Press," we went through the offices and printing rooms of one of our big newspapers, and, as we were studying "The Problem of the Consumer," through one of our largest canning factories.

AS the term progressed and many of the students grew enthusiastic about what the class was meaning to them, a group suggested that we ought to put on an assembly program to show the school at large what we were accomplishing. While the steering committee was trying to decide what might be the possibilities, the principal of the school asked the teacher of the class to be school chairman for Community Chest Week. In thinking over what the school might do to advertise the values of the Community Chest, it suddenly occurred to her that that was a fine project for the modern problems class. When she suggested this to the steering committee, the idea was taken up enthusiastically and a committee was appointed.

This committee did a brilliant job. They visited most of the city philanthropies to get human interest stories for their talks, and, when Community Chest Week arrived, they presented talks in most interesting fashion three times: to the class itself, before an assembly in the High School Annex, and at an assembly in the Main Building. Both assemblies were put entirely in their charge, and, judging from the attention paid by the audience, the talks proved entertaining as well as instructive. In addition to the talks, the committee saw to it that Community Chest posters, placards with statistics, and pamphlets with information about various city philanthropies were placed in the corridors.

ACHIEVEMENT

WHEN the term was over, pupils and teacher could all look back to things that might have been done better and to mistakes in organization that should be corrected another term, but it is probably truthful to say that no one in the class left it without some permanent benefit. To some it gave much needed training in administrative responsibility, to others it helped overcome a shyness in assuming leadership. Most of the class learned to use the radio for serious listening such as following the public debates in the "Town Hall" of New York City every Thursday evening, or getting into the habit of listening to some good news commentator like Boake Carter. For several in the class it seems probable that a real sustained interest was developed. For instance, one lad became intensely interested in the banking problem; another was awakened to serious economic thinking by three Brookings Institution reports on the relation of capital and labor to the depression; and a third pupil voluntarily studied so deeply into the work of the Consumer's Research that it seems as if the new point of view he gained may influence others as well as himself throughout his entire life.

Pseudobroadcasts

DONALD L. CHERRY

ALTHOUGH the incorporation of broadcast materials into the curriculum of modern schools has become a commonplace, the classroom use of the radio dramatic form without the actual radio is less frequent, and some consideration may well be given to its merits. With the elimination of visual illusion and the complete dependence on aural effects comes the possibility of easy production and consequently effective use at short intervals. It consumes less class time and relieves the instructor of much of the tedious detail of ordinary dramatic presentation. No costuming is necessary. No scenery is needed. Johnny need only disguise his voice to become an officer in the Spanish war. Moreover students enjoy this form of activity, since its scripts and directions are taken from an entertainment medium to which they devote much of their leisure time, and they feel the thrill of radio production even though they lack a microphone and their voices go no farther than the walls of the room. The interest of the pupils who listen is stimulated by the familiar and well liked form of the radio dramalog, a factor that should by no means be overlooked.

Certain practical questions will immediately present themselves to the teacher.

A teacher of social studies and radio adviser in Sequoia Union High School at Redwood City, California, suggests the adaptation of youthful enthusiasm for radio to classroom activities.

"Is such a technique adaptable to my grade or subject? Where can I obtain scripts? Do I need a microphone?" The answers to these questions vary according to the grade or subject, but the answers in every case are surprisingly practical.

ANSWERING the last of these questions first, it may be pointed out that, since these dramatic presentations are pseudobroadcasts and make no pretence of being more than that, a public address system is not a necessity, although the use of a microphone and a small amplifying system may lend more reality than might otherwise be possible. Sound effects can be made very real with such equipment. Crackling of flames may be rendered clear and distinct by crumpling a sheet of cellophane before the microphone. Buckshot dropped on a sheet of paper will give the effect of a driving rainstorm. Two sheets of emery paper will sound like heavy seas breaking on the shore. On the other hand these are only incidentals and not necessities. A microphone may well be dispensed with in such a production.

The problem of producing satisfactory sound effects will be found to be somewhat easier than it appears. One student named as sound-effects man found that, when a current-events script called for a rumbling series of explosions with a final blast, a very effective illusion could be produced by drumming on the side of a steel filing case in the room. A phonograph with a volume control so that it may be faded in and out will prove very useful, since the use of a musical theme and descriptive music is

quite familiar to the radio audience. A cowboy song can do more to prepare the class for a frontier playlet than any amount of dialogue or announcement. Just as painted flats set the scene for an ordinary play, the background for the dialogue in a broadcast is provided by sound, which is its medium of expression.

THE question of adaptability of the method to grade and subject is more difficult to answer. Probably such programs have been used most frequently in social studies and literature classrooms, because the subject matter in those fields is obviously adaptable to such presentation. A script on the writer's desk is devoted to "William Penn and the Founding of Pennsylvania." Another dramatizes the "Ohio Valley Floods." Today's social problems gain vitality when given this kind of treatment. Episodes in the lives of Keats, Bunyan, Mark Twain, Robert Burns have made dramatization almost inevitable. The classics are, of course, full of possibilities, as is current literary work. Yet other fields are no less crowded with materials that may well be presented by means of the pseudo-broadcast. Science may present not only scenes in its history, but also actual experiments and contemporary scientific processes. To the foreign language teacher, frequently harassed by the dearth of appropriate programs on the air, possibilities are presented for the actual use of the foreign tongue in life situations, with the added opportunity of stimulating interest in the cultures and problems of the countries involved. Consumer education lends itself quite easily to dramatization of this type. The ingenuity of the individual teacher, whether in elementary or secondary classes, will indicate other possibilities.

ONCE having decided to use this kind of radio technique in the classroom, the teacher is confronted by the problem of obtaining a script. Should the pupils write an original script, or are readymade

scripts available? Before the decision is made in favor of an original production, the fact ought to be faced that, while the play the students have composed will certainly stir and retain their interest, more time will be consumed in the whole process than if originality is sacrificed. Suggestions for form may well be obtained from actual scripts. Books on radio-writing are helpful also, but their use may tend to make the whole process seem too involved and formidable.

On the other hand, if originality is sacrificed, written scripts are available from a number of sources. In the fields of history, science, and literature, the Educational Radio Script Exchange of the United States Office of Education in Washington has several series of playlets for free distribution to responsible institutions.¹ A number of radio plays in the same fields may be obtained from the Scholastic Radio Guild, of Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, for a small fee. Excellent scripts of current events are contained in the *Photo-Reporter*, a monthly publication of the *March of Time* movie short subjects (369 Lexington Avenue, New York City). Copies of the scripts of some of the commercial radio broadcasts may also be obtained from the sponsors of the programs. A file of useful script material may be built up by any school with only a slight expenditure.

Most of the available scripts are for a fifteen-minute program, a length that should seldom be exceeded. Recent studies in the field of the educational use of radio seem to demonstrate that half-hour programs have a tendency towards developing restlessness on the part of the classes. If this is true of broadcasts which come to the schools over the air, it is probably also true of the kind of playlets being discussed here. Each episode should be limited, if possible, to about ten minutes, although two such episodes might be presented with a break between them for discussion and relaxation of attention.

¹See p. 511 of this issue.

It should never be lost sight of that these broadcasts are intended for the presentation of instructional material to the class concerned. They should be given the same treatment as are ordinary broadcasts. If preparatory discussions and followups are used with such programs, they should be used with the imitations. It is even more important that the pseudobroadcast should not be handicapped by having its actors seen, rather than merely heard. Emphasis is here on the spoken word. The illusion of Johnny as a Spanish officer is too hard to maintain, if he is standing before the class, the same Johnny they see every day. Several means of avoiding this difficulty are possible. If a public-address system is available, the speakers may be in one room and the class in another. A screen may be used or the actors placed in the back of the room, if the audience takes notes; or the members of the class may be asked to rest their heads on their hands with eyes closed during the program. Whatever the method adopted, the pseudobroadcast should not be expected to create any kind of a visual illusion without the physical properties of an ordinary dramatic production.

If possible, these playlets should be presented in the individual classrooms. The drawbacks of auditorium use have been widely noted by authorities on the use of radio in the schools. If the playlet is to be made an actual part of the curriculum, rather than a period of rest, the class must be kept in its normal surroundings, with the teacher present to guide followup discussions as part of the customary work. The maintenance of classroom contact is most desirable.

It may be noted that the pseudobroadcast also offers dramatic possibilities. It avoids much of the self-consciousness of the ordinary classroom dramatization, since there are no staring eyes to be faced, and the neophyte is given an opportunity to acquire confidence before going on to the true dramatic form.

Perhaps of no less value is the possibility of developing a greater understanding of the nature of radio as an art-medium. Students may thus be initiated into the mysteries of radio scripts, and some of the other mumbojumbo which surrounds the radio in the lay mind. They will come neither to regard it with open-mouthed awe nor to confront it with demands for the impossible.

HERE, then, is a teaching method that will arouse the interest of the student and bring educational materials to his attention in a form usually connected with entertainment and pleasurable experience. It brings to life what otherwise might remain lifeless. Even if it is only in a playlet, a homely discussion of their everyday problems by a group of slum dwellers will not fail to make the matter of slum clearance a good deal more vivid to any class in social problems than would any amount of discussion and consideration of statements of conditions. Franz Schubert, Lincoln, Count Rumford, a steelworker, Einstein, all these, and more, can be brought to life in the classroom. Both the present world outside the classroom and the past offer many subjects for dramatization, and the effort to use them in this way may reach some of the instructional ends we have in mind.

Correlating Guidance with Social Studies

W. W. RODGERS

WHILE the social significance of curriculum revision is recognized by most school administrators, little agreement exists as to the most practical method of revision. Suggestions and recommendations have been offered by professors of education, subject specialists, and other professional groups whose proposals have varied in their merit and have often included unbalanced provisions for pet subjects or cherished panaceas.

Meanwhile events of the last few years have complicated the problem by driving into the secondary school large numbers of pupils who would formerly have made an early entrance into economic life. Moreover with continued unemployment, we may reasonably expect these increases to become permanent.

In the light of these developments we must recognize that for large numbers of the school population in 1938 an educational diet composed largely of the classical, mathematical, and linguistic disciplines is no longer palatable or adequately nourishing and is scarcely an effective means of

facilitating individual adjustment to modern life. Vocational education, with its existing limitations, offers but a partial solution.

GUIDANCE AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

THE most promising alternative appears to be general education, constituted not as a miscellaneous collection of cultural odds and ends but composed of useful and significant subjects and activities, focused primarily on intelligent cooperative living in our social, political, economic, and cultural environment. Many school administrators have concluded that in the social studies and educational and vocational guidance programs lies a possible way of increasing the effectiveness of public education as an agent of social progress. Consequently there has been a marked tendency in recent years to assign more curriculum time to many of the new classes and activities recommended by guidance workers and teachers of the social studies.

CONFLICT BETWEEN THE TWO

WHILE it is true that both the social studies and guidance programs have received increased consideration in recent curriculum revision, nevertheless, it is only rarely that both have received consideration comparable with their respective merits. Some school administrators have been indifferent to the values in the guidance program, while introducing substantial blocks of social studies material into the school curriculum. On the other hand, though less frequently, other competent educators have

Vocational civics has often been part of the social studies program. Mr Rodgers, who is now a teacher of history and economics in the high school at Litchfield, Connecticut, prepared this study of other possibilities for educational and vocational guidance while a student in the Graduate School of Education at Harvard.

dismissed the social studies as being too theoretical, factual, and controversial, and have assigned increased curriculum space to educational and vocational guidance, exploratory courses, or classes for home membership and the use of leisure. It is not the purpose of this paper, however, to dwell upon the valuable contributions made to general education by both guidance and the social studies.

We are concerned with the fact that many small traditional secondary schools have not as yet succeeded in making adequate provision for effective minimum programs of both guidance and the social studies. Consequently it becomes the purpose of this paper to attempt to formulate some compromise, embodying all the basic elements of both programs. Such a compromise ought to be suitable, in the main, to any school, however limited its facilities, and it ought not to require an unreasonable proportion of curriculum time, since that would work to the detriment of other valuable school subjects less directly concerned with social objectives.

NEED FOR COOPERATION BETWEEN THEM

FOR most schools, particularly those in the smaller cities and towns, the organization of separate classes for all the various subjects and activities of the two programs would be impracticable. The school curriculum is already seriously overburdened and cries out for relief. Guidance and the social studies, entrusted as they are with the responsibility of assisting pupils to become more cooperative members of society, might well set an admirable precedent by voluntarily reducing the amount of school time each deems essential for the achievement of its own individual aims and objectives.

Even a brief consideration of the nature of social studies and of guidance subjects indicates something of the interrelation and of the need for cooperation.

The social studies are those branches of knowledge which relate to the past develop-

ment, present status, and future improvement of the social, political, economic, and cultural conditions under which man lives. All studies are to a certain extent social, but of those most commonly found in the school program history, civics, geography, economics, and sociology are of course considered chiefly so.

In theory all education should be guidance, though in actual practice schools fall far short of the goal of guiding pupils in improving, extending, and organizing their individual and cooperative activities. Therefore the champions of educational and vocational guidance encourage the utilization of the guidance values that frequently exist in traditional school subjects, but at the same time insist, rightfully, upon adding to the school program new classes and new activities as well as individual and group counseling, vocational education, placement, and follow-up. These newer classes and activities of the guidance curriculum include classes and groups for the study of vocational information, classes for the study of educational opportunities, and organized instruction in ethics, home relations, and the use of leisure.

AN impartial observer examining several representative guidance and social studies programs would immediately discover striking similarities between the aims and objectives of each program and also an undesirable and unnecessary duplication of subject matter. Such an impartial observer might also find it difficult to understand why social studies teachers consider economics, geography, and sociology objects of legitimate consideration and yet display no similar enthusiasm for a related subject such as the study of occupations, or such guidance subjects as education for home membership and the use of leisure.

In many respects the new subjects and classes suggested by guidance workers may be defined as social studies, since the subject matter of such courses is drawn almost entirely from the background of human ex-

perience that constitutes the social sciences. As regards the intelligent interpretation and immediate usefulness of this content to the pupil, it may be said that the guidance classes have met with a degree of success not thus far attained by most orthodox social studies courses. Guidance classes in many cases merely utilize the somewhat lifeless theoretical knowledge already acquired by the pupil in his regular courses in history and civics, economics or modern problems, to form the basis of practical instruction designed to assist pupils in understanding and dealing with the problems they will soon encounter as workers, parents, and citizens.

THE guidance counselor and the teacher or specialist in the social sciences should be more interested in the common, rather than the divergent, elements in the two programs, which form the basis of mutual study and cooperation. Joint committees of specialists and teachers from each field should cooperate in all curriculum construction and revision. Social studies teachers and guidance workers have much in common to facilitate such cooperation. Training in the social sciences constitutes one of the educational qualifications indispensable for a capable guidance worker. In smaller schools the history or civics teacher is often responsible for such guidance activities and counseling as may exist. There are certain aspects of the guidance program that might well be incorporated in the social studies curriculum, and vice versa. An attempt to reach a higher unity should be made in the interests of self-preservation, if not for the more altruistic motive of relieving an already overburdened school curriculum.

BASIC ELEMENTS OF BOTH PROGRAMS

WHAT are those basic elements of both the social studies and guidance programs which are socially so significant that their omission from the school curriculum would disastrously impair the effectiveness of our whole system of public edu-

cation? The problem is to select not what is desirable but what is essential, to set up a practical correlated program that will offer a measure of enlightenment and stimulation to those harassed administrators and teachers who are nevertheless genuinely concerned with the provision of basic social studies and guidance subjects and activities within the limitations of existing school facilities.

AN average or representative social studies curriculum reduced to a basic minimum probably ought to include the following courses, most of which would be required of all pupils. For the elementary school there ought to be a series of units of history, geography, and biography with elements of economics and civics, preferably extending over the whole six-year sequence of grades. The junior high school would include American history, community or vocational civics with a consideration of local, state, and federal government. The Senior high school would emphasize American history, especially its social, economic, and cultural factors, and, if curriculum space permits, would provide a required course in the problems of democracy in the last year.

From the many desirable activities and subjects that ordinarily constitute an ideal guidance curriculum the study of such aspects as the following might be selected as entitled to initial consideration: (a) educational opportunities, school problems, how to study; (b) occupational information, opportunities and problems of vocational life; (c) ethics, home membership, and use of leisure.

A few schools have already made provisions for guidance activities and classes similar to those already suggested. Classes for the study of educational opportunities and school problems are frequently organized in the home room or combined with existing subjects in the curriculum. Likewise instruction in occupational information and the techniques of vocational choice

is often provided by a separate course extending over a semester or two or combined with a subject like civics or oral English.

The remaining schools make little or no effective provisions for educational and vocational guidance beyond expressing an optimistic but futile hope that every teacher will be a guidance worker.

Even those outstanding schools which have organized separate classes for the study of information and materials pertaining to educational and vocational guidance have failed to recognize that in order to be effective such instruction should not only be given at one but at several specific points in the school curriculum. For example, a classroom consideration of the subject matter and techniques of educational guidance may well be necessary at three periods in the pupil's school career, that is, near the end of grade six, during junior high school, and at the end of senior high school. Likewise some classroom study of occupations and the techniques of vocational choice should be arranged not only in the junior high school—before any proportionately large elimination from school and before the election of subjects of vocational significance—but in the senior high school as well.

SUGGESTIONS FOR CORRELATION

THIS article has already indicated that a basic social studies program for the six grades of elementary school should be constructed as a series of units of history, geography, and biography, supplemented by simple economics and civics. Such a program inevitably includes a good deal of material of an educational and occupational nature which, if rearranged and increased, might easily be focused on the achievement of guidance objectives. To illustrate, it is quite common to find social science units in the elementary school based on such subjects as "the school," "the home," "the farmer," "the department store," "how we get our food"; and it would require little ingenuity to transform these and similar units into an effective medium for the study of

future educational and occupational opportunities.

Near the end of grade six several new units, focused more directly on guidance objectives, might be substituted for existing social studies units. In addition to an intensive consideration of the simple ABC's of school and occupational adjustment, these new units should also be flexible enough to make provision for visits to the junior high school and talks by its officers and teachers designed to facilitate the adjustment of the bewildered pupil to the new environment of the higher school.

FOR the junior high school the same kinds of possibilities exist. In grade seven a student ordinarily devotes a year's study to American history. At this grade level there is also genuine need for a more extensive and detailed study of educational opportunities and the choice of school subjects in the light of the pupil's interests and abilities. At present this useful aid to educational guidance is usually condensed into a few hasty lectures or vestibule classes, or is made the responsibility of the home room teacher. My suggestion is that the course in American history at this grade level should be reduced by about one third, and that the time resulting from such a curtailment should be devoted to a more adequate treatment of the subject matter and techniques of educational guidance. No irreparable loss would be suffered by the social studies curriculum, since American history is nearly always required once again in grade eleven or twelve, with the more advanced course often monotonously duplicating much of the material already considered by the earlier course.

While to some critics the combining of educational guidance with American history may seem to be illogical, it really constitutes no radical innovation at all, since some social studies teachers voluntarily assume the responsibility of teaching pupils "how to study" as a natural introduction to effective study in this field. In the absence

of a guidance counselor with definite curriculum time to devote to the classroom study of educational opportunities, then the social studies teacher is the person best qualified by training and viewpoint to offer such instruction as may properly constitute the basis of the introductory units of a condensed American history course in grade seven.

In grade eight a year's study of occupational opportunities and problems is to be recommended for all pupils. This course in occupations should not only be devoted to a careful study of representative occupations, but should also stress the need for intelligent cooperation by all participants in modern economic life. Some schools at the present time combine occupations with civics in one course. This practice is somewhat unwise since both occupations and civics, if carefully organized and well taught, need separate treatment in order to inculcate in boys and girls practical cooperative citizenship.

If the study of occupations must be combined with some school subject because of limited facilities, then that subject should be, not civics or English, but economic geography. A workable plan might be devised by which one-third of the time ordinarily allocated to occupations should be spent on geographical material carefully selected and organized so as to supply a broad view of the world of occupations.

DURING senior high school some provision must be made by which all pupils may receive a third injection of social studies serum combined with educational and vocational guidance, if they are to gain a reasonable degree of immunity from those social and economic diseases which in the past have ravaged many of our modern citizens.

In grade eleven most schools prescribe a year's additional study of American history. As organized today, this course has several guidance possibilities. The newer textbooks designed for this class place a needed empha-

sis on the social, economic, and cultural factors of American history. Several of these recent texts have complete chapters dealing with the history of American education, social customs, the use of leisure, economic history, and labor problems.

In the hands of a skillful teacher much of this material might form the basis of several units of distinct guidance value. For example, a unit might be arranged dealing with the history and aims of American education and culminating in a discussion of educational and cultural opportunities available to the high school student after graduation. The chapters describing business, capital, and labor might form the basis of a unit designed to provide the student with a final and more satisfactory insight into the occupational opportunities and problems of modern economic life. However, the curtailing of American history in grade seven would render it unwise to reorganize its affiliated course in grade eleven along these lines, except in the case of those schools which do not offer a course in modern problems or problems of democracy.

The modern problems course usually found in grade twelve possesses far superior guidance values than does American history in grade eleven. While it is true that at present the possibilities for a guidance correlation are buried beneath a restrictive shell of academic and theoretical social studies content, nevertheless, this course might be transformed into a stimulating classroom subject in which all the knowledge, wisdom, and attitudes acquired by pupils through organized instruction in the social studies and guidance classes could be fused into a general philosophy of life for the pupil about to take his place as an active member of society. The aims and objectives of the guidance curriculum will supply the criteria to be used in the selection of the content and scope of this new classroom subject. From the social studies should be drawn the historical background and perspective necessary to insure permanent validity for the

generalizations comprising this philosophy of living rather than a validity merely applicable to the more immediate and transitory problems.

This is a possible list of problems that might form the core of such a course in grade twelve, to be called "Problems of Life": (1) problems of present and future home membership, marriage, divorce; (2) problems of ethical, moral, and religious conduct; (3) problems dealing with educational opportunities, culture, patterns, and the use of leisure; (4) problems concerning occupational opportunities and vocational activities, employer-employee relations, unemployment, social security, collective bargaining; (5) problems of thrift, savings, insurance, budgeting of expenses, consumer and cooperative buying, advertising; (6) sociological problems—crime, poverty, delinquency, housing, gambling; (7) problems of democratic government, taxes, elections, patronage, civil service, international relations; (8) additional optional units to be formulated on the basis of pupil needs and interests.

The subject matter and materials for this course will be found, not in textbooks, but in newspapers, magazines, and the everyday life of Mr Average Citizen. May we again insist that such instruction should be quite concrete and practical. For example, in connection with the unit of democratic government pupils should be presented actual illustrations of the tricks of rhetoric, false analogies, sweeping generalizations, and emotional shibboleths and symbols employed by unscrupulous politicians, rabble-rousers, and superpatriots who have too often been permitted to transform the "American procession" into a circus parade. Examples of sensational journalism and high pressure advertising should be studied and compared with standards set by more scrupulous competitors. Pamphlets and bulletins issued by Better Business Bureaus should be used in trying to teach pupils to recognize the ingenious swindles of the confidence man and "gold-brick" artist. In this

course the social studies and guidance programs should coordinate their respective viewpoints and past instruction, inject a spirit of reality into the past generalizations and attitudes already built into the character of the public school child, and cooperate in the selection of significant subject matter and activities, designed to guide pupils in the ABC's of the democratic way of life.

CRITICISMS AND CONCLUSIONS

THIS rearrangement and coordination of subject matter and activities should not be misinterpreted to imply that there are unlimited possibilities for correlation between the guidance and social studies programs. On the contrary, there are many elements in both programs which merit separate and individual consideration. The social studies department will continue to offer several regular uncorrelated courses to be required of some pupils but elective for others, and the guidance counselor must remain individually responsible for the organization of try-out and exploratory courses, individual and group counselling, placement and followup.

It is of no great significance what names or labels are assigned to the correlated courses arranged for the various grade levels. They may be taught individually by one social studies teacher or guidance counselor, or by several teachers representing each department. One must recognize that any attempt to work out a practical plan of correlation will inevitably result in many difficult administrative problems, the solution of which will tax the ingenuity of the trained educator. A correlated program for guidance and the social studies probably needs unitary arrangement of subject matter, some individualized method of instruction, expert teachers, and a more liberal and flexible system of grading and testing, but so does any school curriculum that seeks to reduce the gap between the stated aims and objectives of education and their realization in actual school practice.

Results in the Social Studies

KARL O. SUESSENGUTH

DEFINITIONS of history usually stress an understanding of social, political, and economic institutions. Sophocles said that a wise man judges of the future by the past. Among modern teachers, Henry Johnson has for a generation taught that the controlling aim for history teaching is to make the social and political world intelligible. Similar opinions could be piled up by the score, but, as a matter of fact, the achievements of history teaching in this direction seem very inadequate. Although understanding of the past can never be complete, history teachers in high schools, as elsewhere, ought to make understanding their vital aim in the hope that mistakes of the past shall not be repeated in the future.

Perhaps history teachers set up innumerable objectives for the study of history and then, too often, are unable to keep those objectives in mind as they pursue their chronological way from Columbus to Franklin D. Roosevelt. Those teachers best prepared to handle their subjects no doubt contribute to the understanding achieved by their better students, but the great

majority can not use their historical background when confronted by the oversimplified solutions offered by the "lunatic fringe" able, it asserts, to bring about a utopia. To be specific, why is it that so many times, during a period of falling prices or during a great national crisis, printing-press money has appealed to so many as a way out? Why is it that demagogues are able to exploit human misery and achieve a national as well as a local following in the United States during some of these crises?

WHEN related, the simple little background story contained in every American history is impressive. Every high school student has been required to study such a text and at some time passed an examination on the facts therein contained. It would seem that this might make every one of them impervious to the arguments that come from the loud speaker, but it has not done so.

Let us look at this story. At a very early time and at a later day the expression "not worth a continental" testified to sad experiences with unlimited printing press money during and after the Revolutionary War. Shay's Rebellion in western Massachusetts gave testimony not only to the misery caused to the debtor class by declining prices but also to the ease of convincing many that the printing press offered the way out. The people of Rhode Island discovered that only more misery resulted when the cheap-money advocates gained control of the legislature. The first and second federal banks provided a sound currency by presenting state bank

To what end do we teach social studies? How may we judge the measure of our success? What will be the result of failure? A teacher of social studies in the John Hay High School of Cleveland believes that his answers to these questions are obvious, but too seldom do they control courses of study and methods of teaching.

notes to those banks for redemption in specie; but the influence of western land speculators and Andrew Jackson's conception of democracy destroyed the second bank and led to a period of unbridled note issue that caused the Mississippi River woodyard proprietor, when asked by a river captain the price of wood, to reply "cord for cord." During the Civil War, greenback issue proved far more costly than bonds inasmuch as these dollars depreciated until they purchased only thirty-five cents worth of merchandise and thus constituted a tremendously burdensome tax upon those least able to pay. The period of declining prices from the 1880's until 1896 led to the formation of radical parties that favored the issuance of greenbacks; and later, under the leadership of Bryan, those favoring free silver were demanding in substance that the government exchange twenty dollars worth of gold for about eleven dollars worth of silver. Rising prices after 1896 ended this movement until falling farm prices from 1921 almost up to the present has made possible the growth of a considerable party under Father Coughlin, who evidences little understanding of the functioning of the gold standard as a ceiling to prevent inflation and whose sole contribution to the beliefs of his predecessors is his opposition to the Federal Reserve Bank.

THIS story, if understood by the student, should cause him to listen with caution to those who advocate cheap money. Every text contains the information, but it is found on pages 75, 120, 201, and so on throughout the book. Some, perhaps most, students of superior ability may be able to recall the story, when confronted with arguments of cheap money advocates. Yet, if this is so, the course of events indicates that they often lose that ability in adult life. Moreover it is the great majority of students who are unable to organize for themselves historical material. They fall prey to demagogues and to mistaken theories.

Several high school economics classes,

when asked to use American history either to support or refute a soldiers' bonus financed by money printed by the government for that purpose, were unable individually to organize the material and reach a logical conclusion. On the other hand in class discussion they were able cooperatively to remember the facts and to apply them to present circumstances in a way seemingly difficult for Lemke of Harvard and O'Brien of Yale.

HISTORY teachers after years of teaching required courses in American history must often be astonished when some political group adopts a principle that repeats once again an often made mistake, but astonishment seldom serves to impel us to do much about the matter. Our method has been for the most part to cover the entire field and hope for the best. Perhaps our social studies should be organized primarily around vital problems or fields of interest capable of being taught so as to contribute something towards a solution of present problems, and then in teaching we should strive constantly to keep that contribution in mind. It seems to me that this constitutes a most pressing problem. Especially so when we bear in mind that problems requiring enlightened consideration are forced to wait for solution while vast numbers react to insecurity and unemployment by embracing fallacies.

Millions, who in a democracy have a voice in any decision, can be lured into believing that a simple solution, such as a transactions tax or cheap money, will bring the millenium.

How, then, can we as social studies teachers plod our unimaginative and chronological way through the field of history? When we see democracy menaced from every direction and Americans who ought to know better returning from Europe praising a Nazi dictatorship because the streets are clean, or we hear a radio orator flirt with fascism because there are 30,000 dues-paying members in an American Com-

munist party, we might immediately expect all American teachers to vow to teach democracy, theory and practice, with a burning zeal. If the necessity for freedom of speech, press, and the right to assemble peaceably were actually taught in American public schools, there would be no work for any "Civil Liberties Union."

DEMOCRACY, it seems to me, should be the chief field of interest around which we should build our social studies course. We should stick to it until we are certain that all understand it and see in it the means necessary to achieve change. To prepare our youthful citizens for change we should so thoroughly acquaint them with the mistakes of the past that, even by the most skillful oratory, they could not be induced to repeat them. In pursuing the study of a unit, field of interest, problem, or whatever one may choose to call it, they would acquire an approach to problem solving that would be additional insurance against being very easily led into fallacy.

Let us do extremely well a few important things, and let us be satisfied they are done well and quit worrying for fear that, if we spend four days instead of three on the Constitution—while the English teachers are spending three weeks on Julius Caesar—we may be forced to leave out a consideration of the boundary dispute with Spain over West Florida.

THE reader may answer that our texts, text materials, and settled methods of teaching do not lend themselves to any such procedure. That is true. Textbooks, by their very nature, lend themselves to practically only one method—that of going through the book from page 1 to page 500. A few years ago, when an experimental course was begun in a large American city, many teachers sabotaged the course, because there was no accompanying text. These same teachers were supposedly trained in the methods of productive scholarship in American universities and could

have searched out materials in splendid libraries on the premises. The problem of suitable materials must be solved by the classroom teacher. Most textbooks are written by college professors whose chief interest is scholarship in their particular field. Those texts that are written by classroom teachers follow too often the methods of the college professors. When the classroom teacher comes to know what he wants in the way of materials the publishers will furnish it. Dividing the school day into forty-five minute periods makes it difficult to lead students to the places where they may see at first hand the workings of our social, political, and economic institutions, but, if possible, such visits as well as moving pictures and strip film should be used.

HOW can we measure results if we follow a procedure of setting up units or problems to engage the students' attention around several major fields of interest suggested above? Perhaps testing will help. By testing I mean not only testing by means of objective tests but also by means of essay type questions that will make it necessary for the student to search his mind for facts, instead of searching a mimeographed sheet for answers, and then to organize those facts as an approach to a solution. Nevertheless results cannot be measured solely by these tests. We must further examine the reactions of the citizenry to the problems that confront it. If it embraces all of the old fallacies in spite of our method, and perhaps for some "ism" or other abandons democracy as a means of orderly change, or if it attempts to prevent discussion, then we must again reexamine our methods, subject matter, and technique. The final measure of the results will be the way the product of our high schools operate the social, governmental, and business world of tomorrow.

If the citizen's behavior is not modified by our processes of teaching the course of study, then we must make necessary changes in the course of study or the methods or both.

British History—A Word from the Consumer

CHARLES L. MOWAT

OF the making of textbooks there is no end, and anyone teaching British history, particularly for freshman and sophomore students, must find himself in a state of considerable bewilderment. No sort of crop control is in effect, for the textbook publishers have in the last ten years or so dumped upon an admittedly expanding market some dozen or more histories of Great Britain, each claiming—or how else can it justify its existence?—to tell the old old story with a difference, to bring out points overlooked by others, and to reduce to obscurity persons and events whose continued prominence is due to tradition, not to their significance. Such rugged individualism of authors and publishers may be justified by the freedom of choice it affords, but only in case the choice presented is a real one. If the conventional narrative comes with merely a different colored cover and a different set of illustrations, the multiplication

is but a weariness of the flesh, and the confused instructor, unable to distinguish between tweedledum and tweedledee, may well sigh for a planned economy that would give him a choice between fewer but more contrasted authorities.

The problem has become pressing within recent months: at least three new texts, and one revision of an old and well established one, have appeared since September 1937. Two of these recently arrived within a single day of each other. Moreover the end is not yet in sight. The corridors of any university are thronged with publishers' agents, not merely touting the brands they already carry—one of the oldest and largest of the publishing houses has at least three texts on English history—but demanding of the veriest tyro in the field when their house is to have *his* version of the history of England.

TO define the aims of a course in English history would seem therefore to be the first need. When that has been done, the various existing texts can more profitably be compared, and specifications drawn for those which will undoubtedly be made in the future.

At risk of stating the obvious, it is suggested that a history of Great Britain, designed for American students, is by its very title condemned. What is needed is a history of the British people, how they have lived and governed themselves, what they have thought, and what they have made. The American, with his varied ancestry, or the average "Englishman" for that matter, is

English history has all but disappeared from secondary schools save for incidental treatment in European history. Yet it continues to provide much of the background that illuminates American institutions and development. This review of some recent publications, by a professor of history in the University of California, Los Angeles, should be useful in suggesting reference volumes for high school teachers and pupils.

not interested merely in the men of southern England, even if their influence on things British has been preponderant. He is as interested in the men of the north of England and of the west country, of Wales, of Scotland, and of Ireland. For him the history of the British overseas, inside and outside the British empire, at least claims a share of attention, a share which, admittedly, it usually gets in the textbook, for the student will indeed be very likely to hear more about Nova Scotia than Scotland, of New South Wales than of Wales. He will want, too, to know something of those influences which have pressed on Britain from outside, will want not merely Britain's foreign policy but her foreign debt. He will want also some knowledge of the sources of British history, of its chroniclers and of its records, so that he can pursue the story further, if he will. More than that, he will want the story to come down to his own time, suggesting to him what Britain and the British are like now. In too many histories the narrative of some development is begun but never completed. The student hears much of the medieval villein, nothing of the agricultural laborer of today; much of the journeyman weaver, nothing of the trade unionist in a Lancashire cotton mill; much of Anglo-Saxon dooms and the assizes of Henry II, nothing of Old Bailey and the new divorce law.

Yet this diverse material need not be presented in disjointed fashion. For the youthful, perhaps even more than for the mature student, history should be a seamless web. There is little excuse for confining portions of "social" or "economic" history to special chapters, afterthoughts coming incongruously after a long treatment of the "political" and "constitutional" history of a century. The student needs to see each stage of the growth of the British people as a whole. The development of a postal system will mean more to him if it is linked with the independence of Parliament in the seventeenth century, enclosure if linked with the structure of politics at the accession of

George III. To write a history of Britain without these traditional distinctions between "histories" of different kinds and interests may be difficult. The attempt may produce a mere hotchpotch, whereas a textbook, if it be without clarity, profiteth nothing. Yet the attempt is surely worth the making.

ONE problem which must be faced is that of proportion. If British history is to be traced from the Roman occupation to the present year of grace, the middle of the book will obviously not correspond with the midpoint in time, about the year 1000 A.D. But does this mean that the midpoint of the book should be about the year 1750? Or should it be at the great dividing line, 1603? These two seem to be the limits of midpoint variation, with 1688 as perhaps the most popular halfway house.

The wisdom of such a division may be questioned. Even granting that the greater complexity of modern conditions may demand for the last two centuries a share of the narrative that, relative to the time span, may seem disproportionate, yet between us and the medieval is a great gulf fixed, and it would seem that a leisurely discussion of British history before 1603, or at the very latest 1660, is essential if the student is to have any understanding both of these times and of their influence upon the modern. To dismiss the medieval period in an introductory one hundred pages has always seemed to this writer to indicate a queer lack of perspective. The eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, of fundamental importance though they are to the understanding of contemporary Britain, do not deserve half of any history. They may well deserve one third, and the Tudor and Stuart periods another third.

CURRENT EXAMPLES

SOME of the penultimate batch of textbooks, although not fulfilling all the suggested specifications, do provide excellent surveys, upon more or less conventional

lines, of British history. W. E. Lunt's *History of England*¹ provides, in a very readable yet restrained style, a careful narrative of the growth of English government and society, though the two are not particularly woven together. The period before 1603 takes almost half the book, a proportion that helps to bring out with admirable clarity the details of the origins of Parliament and the government of the Tudors, for example. The discussion of the sources for English history in different periods is unusually full and is a notable feature of the book, as are the bibliographical chapters at the end, which, from their fullness and their critical analyses, provide a guide for the most advanced student of the subject. The weakness of the first edition of the book lay in its somewhat old-fashioned approach to the problems of eighteenth century industrial development and the lack of any adequate picture of Victorian England beyond the walls of Parliament. Both of these defects have been remedied in the revised edition.² The new chapter on the industrial revolution stresses the changes in other industries than cotton and iron and suggests the influence of capital and of the improvement in means of communication. A new chapter on "other phases of English life and thought in the 19th century" makes admirable use of material which R.C.K. Ensor³ and others have recently made readily accessible. The narrative has also been brought down to 1937 and to the usual subjects adds some mention of bureaucratic encroachment, housing difficulties, and a brief but suggestive account of Edward VIII's abdication which, unlike most other recent textbook accounts, hints that the part played by Baldwin was not above criticism constitutionally.

THE most compendious and thorough account of England's history both at home and in the empire has long been provided

in *A Shorter History of England and Greater Britain* by Arthur L. Cross.⁴ Paragraph headings in dark type and a full index make it probably the best single volume reference book on the subject, and one that rarely fails at least to mention any event or institution of significance. Its proportions may not seem entirely satisfactory, since half the volume concerns British history since 1714; but the earlier periods do get reasonable attention, and the recent history of the empire is exhaustively treated, though the accumulation of most such material in a very long final chapter is open to question. Accounts of social conditions, learning, and literature in various periods are full, though no attempt is made to weave them into the general narrative. The revision made in the latest edition was rather hastily done, and many of the statements in the earlier portions are in conflict with later passages.

Laurence M. Larson's *History of England and the British Commonwealth*⁵ is a similar but better balanced book. Its distinctive features include a treatment fuller than usual of the Danelaw, more adequate accounts of Scotland, Wales, and Ireland in medieval times, and of later Scotland, a good narrative of Britain's imperial history, well assimilated with the rest of the text, and a satisfactory account of Victorian England and the country during the World War and afterwards.

Contrasted with these two, Alfred H. Sweet's *History of England*⁶ seems rather narrowly political. The advantages of a rather full treatment of Anglo-Saxon history, and that of England under the Norman and Plantagenet kings, together with more attention to military affairs than customary, are offset by the almost complete lack of any account of the social or intellectual growth of the people. Religion comes in for full consideration, and a legal slant leads to men-

¹ New York: Macmillan, 1920; rev. ed., 1929.

² New York: Holt, 1924; rev. ed., 1932.

³ Boston: Heath, 1931; for a review of C. E. Carrington and J. Hampden Jackson, *A History of England*, rev. ed. New York: Macmillan, 1936, see *Social Education*, January, 1937.

⁴ New York: Harper, 1928.

⁵ New York: Harper, 1938.

⁶ *England, 1870-1914*. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1936.

tion of such unexpected things as the real property law reform of 1925.

Two other texts of this period may be mentioned. *A Political and Social History of England* by Frederick C. Dietz⁷ with its very title disarms possible criticism of the rather scanty account of political and constitutional development, especially in the medieval period, and in compensation offers details, hard to find so conveniently assembled elsewhere, of national prosperity, public revenues, trade, and the economic aspects of Britain's imperial history. With this and the other texts already mentioned it is instructive to contrast one by an English author which has some circulation in the United States. Cyril E. Robinson is a schoolmaster at Winchester, and his book, *England, A History of British Progress from the Early Ages to the Present Day*,⁸ is presumably written with the needs of the English "public school" boy of sixteen to eighteen in mind. This would not necessarily render it too elementary for the American sophomore, but in fact the book has all through the tone of an "English history without tears." It is unusually full on the various campaigns and battles which British soldiers have fought, and its diagrams of battles are reminiscent of pre-war instruction. Its excursions into the history of continental Europe are fuller than can be justified unless one remembers that many an English schoolboy learns no European history save as a sideline to English history.

⁷ New York: Macmillan, 1927; rev. ed., 1932; volumes that by their title limit their scope are G. M. Young, *Early Victorian England, 1830-1865*. London: Oxford Press, 2 vols., 1936; G. B. Adams and R. L. Schuyler, *Constitutional History of England*, rev. ed. New York: Holt, 1934; for documentary material see E. M. Violette, *English Constitutional Documents Since 1832*. New York: Macmillan, 1936 and C. Stephenson and F. G. Marcham, *Sources of Constitutional History: A Selection of Documents*. New York: Harper, 1937; see also review article in *Social Education*, January, 1937, and January, 1938.

⁸ New York: Crowell, 1928; on the other hand there are British histories written for American students which have the limitations suggested by the statement of their purpose. Of these W. T. Laprade, *British History for American Students*. New York: Macmillan, 1926, is an example.

The history of institutions is recounted, but sketchily. Life and learning have to take their chance with the battles. The account of the causes of the American Revolution, alluding only to the Navigation Acts and the taxation problem, and the condescending epilogue to the account of the Revolution, may be enlightening to any who expect an English author to be as accurate on the subject as an American writing for university students.

ALL these texts, with the possible exception of the last, would seem in fact to be doing much the same thing. They provide a straightforward account of the development of the British system of government, and of Britain's imperial interests, with supplementary, undigested material on industry, trade, the universities, literature, architecture, and dress. There is little or no attempt to describe the development of the British people, little that concerns any part of Great Britain beyond southern England. The differences are in the main differences of arrangement and emphasis, and in the amount of frills provided. All the books have satisfactory maps. Robinson has illustrations, and in these confines itself to buildings and persons. In the introduction the author justifies this by remarking that "the best key to the character of any age is to be found in the faces of its sons and in the manner of their building" (p. vi)—a word to the wise which lavish publishers might heed. The faces of Sir Robert Walpole and Charles James Fox, for instance, are all too rarely reproduced.

OF the three recent additions to the gallery, two seem thoroughly orthodox. Frederick G. Marcham's *History of England*⁹ is in many respects a highly modernized counterpart of Cross. The conventional design is beneath the sheathing of attractive linen cover, ambitious illustrations, intriguing tailpieces, and maps too fussy for clarity.

⁹ New York: Macmillan, 1937.

The halfway house is 1642, making possible a fairly adequate account of medieval and Tudor England. Many things, such as the growth of the House of Commons' powers and the rise of the inns of court, receive for the first time their due attention. Yet, as usual, social and economic history is treated apart from the political. Scotland and Wales are consigned to their usual oblivion. The introduction promises a weaving together of facts with comment and interpretation, but the impression made by the numerous short paragraphs, each with its heading in dark type, is that the wood is often not seen for the trees. This, coupled with the infrequency of reference to the sources, produces a feeling of superficiality hardly modified by the full treatment given to such neglected things as the queen and cabinet in Victoria's time.

W. Freeman Galpin's *History of England*¹⁰ seems to be even more of a patchwork, with numerous short chapters, each divided again into three or four sections. Moreover, although the selection of material is usually sound, the discussion of each topic seems to be lacking in red meat. The book seems of average length, and the mid-point, 1688, suggests a right perspective; but actually large type and wide margins make the book much more slight than it at first seems. It is hard to see with what object this book has been written. Its treatment of constitutional development in the middle ages is confusing, as the narrative jumps back and forth between chapters on political, economic, and intellectual progress. It is hard to justify such condensed treatment of the constitutional development between 1272 and 1485 as that afforded by a single chapter of twenty pages, especially when the chapter discusses first Parliament, then its part in the depositions of Edward II and Richard II, and then rebounds to consider "Edward, the English Justinian." Such puzzling

organization continues through the book. Also, even admitting that the "Drum and Trumpet" need not be exalted (p. v), there would seem to be rather a blind spot in the book's vision when the ten years of the war of the Spanish Succession are dismissed with two paragraphs (pp. 409-10) and a single sentence many pages later (p. 454). Again, while to omit some personalities and events that may be of peculiar significance only to Englishmen (p. v) is doubtless desirable in an American textbook, to give no account of such vivid personalities as Palmerston, Gladstone, and Disraeli is surely to deprive the work of much legitimate local color. Nor is the account of social and economic developments correspondingly full, to compensate for a meagre political narrative. The industrial changes of the eighteenth century are treated in unbelievably cavalier fashion. While in other textbooks the usual digressions on literary history are doubtless sometimes of excessive proportions, to give Shakespeare only a single line (p. 448) is a little startling. Unwonted discussions of mining in England both in early and modern times, and the only discussion—and a good one—in all the books under review on the dilemma of the British Labour party at the present time, hardly make up for the other shortcomings.

THE last book to be considered, *A History of England and the British Empire*, by Walter P. Hall and Robert G. Albion,¹¹ does live up to its expressed aim, "a clear and fresh interpretation of an old and honored theme" (p. iii). Longer than the other works discussed, both in the number of pages, and by reason of a larger page well filled and without paragraph or marginal headings, it is written in a lively but always decorous style, with frequent telling allusions and quotations, and valuable picturesque detail. Following with rare consistency the chronological order, it does

¹⁰ New York: Prentice-Hall, 1938; see the review of this book in the May issue of *Social Education* and the author's letter and reviewer's rejoinder in the September, 1938, issue.

¹¹ Boston: Ginn, 1937.

blend the social and political characteristics of each period and avoids the cakewalk effect of most other texts, save possibly in its account of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. The literature of a period is shown as really belonging to the period. The common man, and in later times he of the middle class, is not neglected. None of the details of everyday life are, however, at the expense of full and accurate accounts of constitutional development. The descriptions of Henry II's work and the rise of the common law, for instance, seem almost too good for a textbook. It leaves little for the student to discover in "outside reading." The usual dividing lines between periods are often ignored, and freshness is gained by treating as a unity such spans as 1042 to 1087, 1154 to 1213, 1214 to 1297, 1629 to 1660, 1688 to 1739, 1739 to 1783. Much that is usually overlooked receives proper attention: the coinage at different times, agricultural wages and revenues, public finance, the army and the navy, methods of warfare, the alliance between the aristocracy and the middle class to make the Victorian compromise. It is only occasionally that things seem to have been overlooked: local government in general, Tudor government, architecture and music, the ferment of political ideas during the Commonwealth, the old colonial system, and the Proclamation of 1763. Also it is perhaps surprising to find such brief mention of Fielding alongside lengthy descriptions of the work of Pope, Johnson, Gibbon, and other eighteenth century figures. Scotland and Wales in modern times are left rather in the cold, contrasted with good treatment in the medieval period.

These are points of detail; a more serious criticism concerns the balance of the book. The halfway house comes later than in all the other textbooks, around 1770, and to devote half the book to the period since then creates serious teaching difficulties. The treatment of the medieval period, in two hundred pages, is wholly admirable. Had a similar perspective been maintained a some-

what shorter book could have been made, and at the same time space have been found for filling those gaps which even this book, along with all the others, does manage to have. The illustrative material on thought and letters from Newton to Burke is almost too abundant for a textbook, and the same is true of the chapter "What the Victorians thought." The accounts of the Napoleonic and world wars are surely too long. And again one must ask whether the chapter on the New Wealth—the eighteenth century revolutions—is not too good for a textbook. Perhaps the book in any case provides more than the freshman and sophomore can assimilate. Yet even for juniors and seniors the richness of the account from 1700 onwards may be cloying. A textbook should after all not be definitive but introductory.

SPECIFICATIONS FOR AN IDEAL HISTORY

THERE remains a duty to suggest some of the things that should receive some mention in the ideal history of the British people. The desired references to the English "provinces," Wales, Scotland, and Ireland, and perhaps such "peculiarities" in the British scheme of things as the Isle of Man and the Channel Islands, need not be in the form of periodical digressions. The geographical, climatic, linguistic, and racial diversity of the country can be emphasized at the outset. Mention of the Welsh marches and the County Palatine of Durham may be made in an analysis of feudal government. The Parliaments of Scotland may be compared with the English Parliament. Borough development in Wales and England can be considered together. An account of agricultural methods and the Poor Law need not have southern England as its exclusive inspiration. The Celtic church in Wales, separate till 798, deserves mention alongside the Scots-Irish church, as does the disestablishment of the Welsh church beside a discussion of nonconformity in modern Britain. In describing the industrial changes of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries there is no reason why the development of

the Clydeside and Robert Owen's work at New Lanark should not be noticed. The copper mines at Parys Mountain in Anglesea are as worthy of mention as the engines of the Soho works. It is strange that the convulsion in Wales which the relatively late exploitation of coal in the South Wales valleys caused receives no mention, even when the Taff Vale case descends on the innocent student like a bolt from the blue. The failure to mention the Highland clearances of the eighteenth century, not merely for their influence upon the population of Glasgow but for their possible effect upon emigration to the colonies, is hard to understand. Indeed the extent of English and Scottish as opposed to Scotch-Irish and Irish emigration, in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, is always overlooked.

In the medieval period there are probably fewer serious omissions usually made than elsewhere. The state of the Danelaw, and its differences from the Wessex and Northumbria regions, seldom gets proper attention, but perhaps this reflects a lack of general scholarly information which Professor Frank Merry Stenton's forthcoming volume in the Oxford History of England Series will probably remedy. The trade of medieval Britain, particularly between the different sections of the islands, and with Ireland, is not generally discussed adequately, and in the handling of the foreign trade wool generally monopolizes attention to the exclusion of fish.

THE treatment of the seventeenth and later centuries is in general much more vulnerable. Wallace Notestein's pioneering lecture, *The Winning of the Initiative by the House of Commons*,¹² has still had all too little effect on the accounts of the early Stuart Parliaments, as has Lewis B. Namier's equally significant work, *The Structure of Politics at the Accession of George III*,¹³ on the account of the eighteenth century House of Commons and its politics. The

change that came over the character of the Commons after 1688, the passing from power of men such as Pym and their survival in the eighteenth century only in the odd hundred of the country Tory opposition under Shippen is never adequately explained. The delayed effect of parliamentary reform on the personnel of the Commons in the nineteenth century is never accounted for, or even mentioned, nor is the gerrymandering of the 1885 Act. Part of the weakness comes from a failure to analyze—admittedly a fearsome task—the “ruling class” of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries; for that matter we are never told where the middle class came from, or when or why. This in turn springs partly from the refusal to suggest the accumulation of capital and the effects of its wide investment on eighteenth century industry. One never gets a hint of such a transaction as the purchase by the York Buildings Company (a London water works concern) of the Tranent estate of the Earl of Winton in 1719, and its laying down of perhaps the earliest wagon way in Scotland, from Tranent to Cockenzie, which incidentally played a part in the battle of Prestonpans.¹⁴ Yet this sheds light too on one effect of the Union of England and Scotland.

Failure to suggest the emergence of the middle class—and later the corresponding rise to political power of the working class—comes in part however from a different cause: inadequate accounts of the development of education in Britain. The universities of Oxford and Cambridge receive always their due meed of notice, perhaps more. The Scottish universities almost never do, and the same is true of the modern provincial universities. Henry VI's Eton and Edward VI's grammar schools are duly alluded to. The work of the grammar schools in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries is not. Nor are the implications of the Education Act of 1870 and its successors

¹² London: Oxford Univ. Press, 1924.

¹³ London: Macmillan, 2 vols., 1929.

¹⁴ Kenneth Brown, “The First Railway in Scotland: the Tranent-Cockenzie Wagon Way.” *Railway Magazine* (London), January, 1938.

brought out: the hardening of the class line in education which it gave rise to. Nothing is more confusing to the American student than the English "public" schools. Because they are good, he is led to conclude that the whole British educational system is good. The work of the state elementary and secondary schools, though it affects far larger numbers and has much wider influence than that of the "public" schools, never gets a mention in a discussion of contemporary Britain. The width of the educational "ladder" in England, and the effects of its deliberate narrowness, are never discussed.

In various other respects also the accounts of Victorian Britain could be improved. To describe the immense changes in all walks of life and fields of endeavor which the Victorian and Edwardian period saw is certainly a problem in arrangement; but the problem itself is simplified if that great watershed in Victorian England, the year 1870, is recognized, and the account divided into two parts, with the latter extending down to 1914. R. C. K. Ensor's book itself, in its various non-political chapters, provides a model for the treatment of the social changes of this period, stressing for instance the revolutions wrought by the bicycle, knickers, and the week-end (ante, pp. 136; see pp. xix-xxiii). His account of the daily press of those decades, and particularly the rise of the penny press, emphasizes an often neglected influence; nor should the stately periodicals of London and Edinburgh, and the weekly 'arguses' and 'couriers' of the small country towns, be without notice. The depression in agriculture in the eighties, as significant as the advance of technology, deserves more attention than it usually gets. Both in the earlier and later Victorian periods the influence of the railways upon the country in general is almost always overlooked; yet cheap freight rates profoundly affected architecture, suburban trains produced suburbia, the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd class compartments first heightened, then tended to obliterate, old social distinctions. What present-day London owes to the Inner

Circle, the trams, the tubes, and the busses can perhaps never be measured properly. Yet the successive influences which each had on generations of Londoners and visitors from the provinces might at least be hinted at. The recent works of Cyril B. Andrews¹⁵ and George A. Sekon¹⁶ have been long overdue.

If the 9.7 A.M. from Finchley altered the living habits of the shipping clerk, so did the 5.50 A.M. from Bethnal Green affect the worker in a paint factory. Yet improved transportation has still not banished the city slums. Some attention the textbook may give them, though the various visitations of cholera and the work of Sir Edwin Chadwick are usually passed over in silence. So are the university settlements such as Toynbee Hall, and so is the Charity Organization Society, though both touch Victorian England at many points and reach many of its classes. The public house and the chapel contended as friendly or bitter rivals for the working man, and few were probably outside the influence of one or the other; but Bass and Spurgeon are both among those that have no textbook memorial. The more self-conscious influences of adult education classes and public libraries receive equally scant notice.

EVEN more open to criticism is the conventional treatment of the period of the World War and the succeeding years. The military and naval campaigns deserve their prominence only if the war on the home front receives mention, and 'Dora,' the women workers, and Rex *vs.* Halliday get their share of attention. In the post-war period politics usually get first consideration. Yet the strange death of the Liberal party is passed over, though it played havoc with the two-party system, which postulated two parties with the same general philosophy of the state, one which the socialist, by

¹⁵ *The Railway Age*. Garden City: Doubleday Doran, 1937.

¹⁶ *Locomotion in Victorian London*. London: Oxford Univ. Press, 1938.

definition at least, lacked. Many influences on contemporary Britain are overlooked: the cinema with its possibilities of Americanization; pylons, the radio, and motorcars; the Youth Hostel movement and the Boy Scouts. Many characteristics are not recorded: an encroaching bureaucracy, the changing personnel of local government and its breakdown in the depressed areas; Tory socialism; the growth of state ownership and operation of utilities which the BBC, the Central Electricity Board, and the London Passenger Transport Board indicate, and which the Railways Act of 1921, by the grouping of the main line companies in 1923, brought at least one stage nearer in the field of transport. The nationalization of the coal mines will need mention, as do already the controls on agriculture which marketing boards and quotas impose on flour, milk, eggs, bacon, and meat.

Indeed the fundamental problems confronting British industry and agriculture at the present time are overlooked—one glaring example of the astigmatism that excludes from the field of vision all but southern England. J. B. Priestley's *English Journey*¹⁷ should be required reading for all textbook writers, not only for its unforgettable picture of Jarrow, but for its general view of the "provinces." The same is true of Batsfords' excellent *Face of England Series*,¹⁸ which by the printed word and by pictures show both the light and the dark places in the British Isles today. That there is such a thing as Welsh nationalism, and that the Welsh language still possesses admirable vitality, could not be gleaned from any textbook; nor could the depression which has settled on all Scotland, and which may or may not be due to the evil Sassenach. Cicely Mary Hamilton's *Modern Scotland*¹⁹ and George M. Thomson's lament for *Caledonia*: or, *The Future of Scotland*²⁰ should be in the bibliographies. The Irish emigration to Scotland and the transformation of Glasgow into an Irish Catholic city shed light not merely on the program of the Scottish Nationalist movement, but on De Valera's unwillingness to sever the last links between Eire and Great Britain.

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FINALLY that the student may study such problems of contemporary Britain for himself, he needs some guidance in the daily and periodical press of the country, needs to have the value and drawbacks of the *Times*, the *Manchester Guardian*, the *Daily Mail*, the *Daily Herald*, the *New Statesman*, *Punch*, and the *Round Table* suggested to him.

SOME may claim that such specifications make demands which no author could meet, or should be expected to meet. Yet all the things mentioned as being overlooked in the conventional textbook version of English history are already the subject of monographs, or are bound to become so. The disadvantage of a monograph is that it does not as a rule show what it, as a tributary, contributes to the main stream of British history. This is the opportunity of the textbook writer. He can indeed, if he chooses, write something more than a textbook, that broad yet scholarly interpretation of British history which it is now unfashionable for the professional historian to attempt. It should be attempted, and by those whose scholarship qualifies them to do so; and if the professional historian makes the attempt in the form of a textbook, he will not be accused of breaking the ranks. The textbook writer has become in fact the sole surviving descendant of the historian in the grand manner, even if his coat of arms carries a bar sinister. If he will, in writing his book, see Britain steadily and see it whole, his will be not the vilest of trades but the noblest of professions.

¹⁷ New York: Harper, 1934.

¹⁸ For example, Edmund Vale, *Northern England and the Lakes*. New York: Scribner, 1937; and Eiluned and Peter Lewis, *The Land of Wales*. New York: Scribner, 1937.

¹⁹ New York: Dutton, 1937.

²⁰ New York: Dutton, 1928.

Have You Read?

KATHARINE ELIZABETH CRANE

AS I sit down this month to sum up my impressions of these magazine articles I am reminded that none of us can probably ever be poignantly enough aware of the fact that all these issues are not just articles within more or less brightly backed magazines. They are the questions of the lives men must lead, and the deaths they must die. This is true not only of questions of struggle but equally of every phase of peace, for the realities of life are as truly the facts of happy home and successful labor as of battlefield and squalid tenement. There is nothing that can be set down on paper to make us completely able to grasp and hold fast to a sense of reality. That must be the result of personal effort and natural endowment.

This does not at all imply a sentimental outlook on personal and world affairs, because individuals living and dying are to be thought of constantly as in the long future as well as in the past and present. It implies opinions reached and held by an intellectual process which takes vividly into account the whole of human life, alien as well as akin.

PALESTINE

THERE is no current question about which this seems to me to be more true than about the problems that have stirred up the strife that now troubles what our parents' generation always called the Holy Land and what three of the world's great religions look upon as their own holy ground. These are questions which certainly must be considered in the light of human

values, but which equally certainly must be included in a large view of future as well as past, stranger as well as neighbor. In that narrow, barren strip of land are concentrated many of the important sites sacred to the religious history of the Jews, the Christians, and the Mohammedans, the one not more than the other and the other not less than the one.

For the Jews the phrase the "Promised Land" seems to settle the whole question, but Americans ought to remind themselves that, in any temporal sense, the Jews lost control of the country before the time of the Romans, and that these two thousand years have seen many changes. Americans will perhaps understand why the Arabs resent efforts, after two thousand years, to restore the land to the Jews by "right of prior occupation and historical connection," because we can realize how much we might resent any attempt by Great Britain to restore the territory of these United States to the Indian tribes from whom we took it only some paltry three hundred years ago—and less.

Equally perhaps Americans ought to remind themselves that the Mohammedans acquired the territory by conquest in 637 and until they lost it to the British in 1917 held it among themselves all that time, with the exception of three periods during the Crusades—almost a century from 1099 to 1187, the ten years from 1229 to 1239, and the brief time, 1243 to 1244. After 1516 it was the Ottoman Turks who ruled Palestine, and they are not racially kin to the Arabs; but they are Mohammedans and as such protected the holy places of Islam. That is,

the Jews held Palestine, through many racial and party vicissitudes of which we lack a very clear record, for perhaps some thirteen centuries and lost it twenty centuries ago, and the Arab Mohammedans held it for a scant nine centuries, lost it to Turkish Mohammedans who held it another four centuries and lost it in 1917.

As a bribe and a reward for the service of the Mahommedan Arabs against the Mohammedan Turks in that matter of the capture of Jerusalem in 1917 and for other services in behalf of the Allies during the World War the Arabs received certain more or less specific promises from Great Britain. It is fair to point out that Great Britain was in a very tight place in those years. The Arabs seemed absolutely necessary to her, and in such circumstances she probably made whatever promises were necessary. Apparently Lawrence of Arabia, who was the instrument by which some at least of the promises were made, thought they were betrayed and retired from active participation in British policy.

On the other hand certain promises, equally binding, were made to the Jews in equally critical circumstances of the World War. In the fear—probably well founded—that Germany would be able to obtain the moral support of the whole international community of Jews by a German plan to make Palestine a Jewish state, Great Britain managed to beat her to the draw by indicating to the Zionists that she would sponsor a general return to the "Promised Land."

NOW there are some 350,000 recent immigrants in Palestine—as against barely twice as many Mohammedan inhabitants—and the Zionists are expecting to increase that number by leaps and bounds. The Arabs maintain that this cannot be, that there will be no peace until Jewish immigration stops. In this their agreement is very nearly complete, sustained equally by the many Christian Arabs as well as by those who adhere to Islam. They

are divided very much, Mohammedan and Christian Arabs alike, about the value and right of terrorism, but in their opposition to Jewish immigration they are agreed. In spite of some extreme statements they probably do see the difficulties of dislodging those Jews already immigrated, but they utterly refuse to contemplate any such further addition to their problems of life and government.

British stake in all this is more complicated than merely deciding which of her promises she will keep—which thoroughly untenable position she will try to hold. It is much more complicated than that. Palestine is vital to the maintenance of British imperial communications—the Suez canal and the air route to Bagdad and India, for instance. Haifa is the terminus for the great pipe line that brings oil from Iraq to the sea, and that city is also, at present at least, a possible naval base relatively secure from air attack by Italy, for it lies more than six hundred miles away from the nearest Italian air base in Libya and more than four hundred miles from air bases in the Dodecanese. The whole question of Arab aspirations in Palestine is tied up with questions of Arabs elsewhere in and out of British dominions. Any successful Pan-Arabic movement would affect the British Empire seriously. Moreover the workings of foreign propaganda are evident to many observers, and both Italy and Germany are accused of complicity.

RECENTLY a British commission proposed the partition of Palestine as a kind of compromise. Neither side is satisfied with the plan, though perhaps the Jews could be persuaded to accept it. Palestine is in revolt. The discontent that burst into flame two years ago last April has grown worse. Since last July rioting and outrages by both sides have followed each other in rapid succession. An Arab broker is shot dead in the waiting room of an Arab doctor in Jaffa. A Jewish policeman is shot and killed while riding in an Arab-owned bus

between Lydda and Jaffa. An Arab village chieftain is killed while walking in the streets of old Jerusalem with an Arab friend who is also wounded. A Jew lingers a week and then dies after being stoned in the streets of Ramleh. All this and more in the space of a day or so, and set down in one press dispatch.

LAST June John Gunther contributed to *Harpers* "Partition in Palestine?" which puts the case for the Jews. "The Jews, a people without a homeland, have an inescapable moral, historical, and political right to one, and Palestine is the only one possible. They have as much 'right' to Palestine as the Arabs." Americans, of course, are always a little uneasy in the face of this kind of talk, because they begin to hunt around in their minds for a suitable "homeland" for the American Indians who seem to have equally a "moral, historical, and political right to one." And then there are the American Negroes!

He admits that the Jews "range from the Brown-Shirted 'Revisionist' extremists of Mr. Jabotinsky, who is exiled from Palestine and who wants to drive all the Arabs into the sea or something worse, to intellectuals like Dr. Judah Megnes, Chancellor of the Hebrew University, who thinks that a policy of 'patience, persuasion, and conciliation' may still win the Arabs over."

As for Jewish achievement in Palestine it has been very real, well planned and administered within and outside of Palestine and generously endowed by the vastly wealthy Jewish communities and individuals throughout the world. As Mr Gunther says, the Arabs "were no match for the educated and hustling Jews. Jewish immigration advanced copiously. The Jews built a great university near the Mount of Olives. They created the only exclusively Jewish municipality in the world at Tel Aviv. They built hospitals, welfare stations, laboratories for scientific research into agriculture. They brought, in fact, the modern world to Palestine."

At the end he sums up his judgment of the matter. "One thing the events of 1936 and 1937 seem to have proved beyond a doubt. The future of civilization in Palestine rests with the Jews."

SOME other views are offered in "Tel Aviv, City of the Jews," which Troy McCormick contributes to the *English National Review* for August. He does not forget the human aspects of it all as regards the age-old sorrow of the Jews. "It is important to remember what many of these people have endured and to feel for them the sympathy they deserve." Yet he sees other aspects and presents them with conviction. As he describes Tel Aviv it stands forth in stark ugliness.

"The strip of land at the back of each building is occupied by clothes-lines and garbage-tins. The flat roofs are used, not for gazing at the stars, but for more clothes-lines. . . . There are no public gardens, no parks in Tel Aviv. Trees are being planted along some streets, but they grow slowly in the sand. There are rows and rows of concrete buildings. Tel Aviv has grown so fast that blocks of flats sprang up before roads were made, streets were cemented in such a hurry that there was no time to lay drains. In the rainy season the streets were often flooded. In Tel Aviv one walks between cement walls. It is difficult to realize that beyond the town lie the beautiful orange groves and the blue hills."

His testimony is interesting concerning the intolerance of the Jewish newcomers—especially the Orthodox Jews. Until restrained by British policy "orthodox patriarchs, with beards and side-curls, had the habit of flinging stones at any car daring to enter Tel Aviv on the *Shabbath*." And "in those days the sinful smoker of a cigarette was apt to have it snatched from him by an irate patriarch. Then also they were tempted to take their sticks to wicked little boys on scooters." Now, owing to continued pressure from British police, life is a little easier for those who presume to differ

from Orthodox teaching. "The orthodox glare and mutter *Shabbath*, but they do not attack."

As for manner and courtesy, a "European in the East, observing the exquisite manners of the Chinese and the Malays, feels like a savage bursting out of the jungle, waving a club. His good opinion of himself is easily restored when he comes to Tel Aviv." The writer of the article offers again the extenuating circumstances: "There are Jews in Tel Aviv who have come to Palestine fleeing for their lives. This freedom is too strong a draught for them. It drives them to excesses." Yet he explains what he means vividly. "They walk four abreast on the footpath, making way for nobody. . . . Nobody will give way to anyone else. They push ahead of each other in the queue at the post-office. If, like any Tel Avivan, one stands staring into a shop-window, somebody slips in front, obscuring the view."

By contrast the Arabs place a good deal of importance upon the practice and enjoyment of courtesy. In ordinary intercourse they behave "with only the most charming courtesy, for the Arab is a perfect gentleman, although his gun does have an awkward way of going off unexpectedly."

AT the end of the article as in the beginning, the author remembers the pity of it all. "Even intoxicated with freedom as they are, the Jews are also afraid. . . . There is always something to frighten them. . . . They are so accustomed to the luxury of fear that when there is no bogey to be afraid of they invent one. This is the heritage of the race which has been harried in every country. And then suddenly comes the justification of this eternal fear. The riots break out again. Jews are being murdered in the land of their fathers."

SEVERAL other articles bear on this issue of Palestine. In the July *Asiatic Review* Professor Smolénski in "Palestine and the Problem of Population in Poland" discusses the kind of a demand for a port of

immigration which arises for a too dense population rather than from racial and political causes. "Nowadays the rate of emigration of the Polish Jews is estimated by the Jewish experts as 100,000 to 120,000 per year."

The *Nation* carries frequent articles on the subject, but fuller week to week discussion of economic and political events are in the English weekly *Great Britain and the East*. In the July 16 issue the *Nation* enunciated the fundamental proposition that "today the Jewish question has become the moral responsibility of the whole non-fascist world."

"Germany Shocked Me" by our former ambassador to Germany, William E. Dodd, in the August 20 issue of the *Nation*, with its simple narrative of events and description of what is the official policy and common practice of Jew baiting in Germany, creates a picture of horror—horror not because the victims are Jews but because they are human beings. The reader even has a glimpse of the degrading effect all of it has on the rest of the German people. His explanation is definite. "It all stems from Hitler himself and from the philosophy explicitly stated in his book, 'Mein Kampf'. . . . He predicts that by 1950 no Jew will be living within the boundaries of Germany, that they all will have been killed or driven into exile."

In this connection, too, a pamphlet by Evelyn Lend published by the League for Industrial Democracy (112 East 19 Street, New York City: April 25, 15c.) may be interesting. From the Leftist point of view it deals with "The Underground Struggle in Germany" to Hitler's regime and also gives some account of the failures in the labor movement that made possible Hitler's rise to power.

SIMIAN WORLD

LIKE those who watch out the night at sickbeds of mortal illness, we mistrust all observations of symptoms in the World's troubles as perhaps only reflections of our

own fears and desires. We anxiously count the pulse and read the fever thermometer, but we question the validity of our count, of apparent rise or fall of fever, and of any prognosis for the future. The only future of which we stand in any certainty is that at last the dawn will come and that some generation of human beings will see the day break.

However even that certainly may be challenged. In the September *Harpers* Elmer Davis with a delightful essay to be read by cat lovers only, "On Being Kept by a Cat," reminds us that there are other possibilities. "The late Clarence Day once speculated on what the world would be like if the species that became dominant had been super-cats instead of super-monkeys. . . . How did it happen that this noble species fell behind a tribe of feeble chatterers who in the tertiary jungles could have been no more than an inconsiderable nuisance?" With the world brought to its present sorry pass by super-apes he suggests that a race of super-cats "may yet get a chance to see what they can make out of the world; unless, as Harlow Shapley once suggested, we simians leave our planet in such condition that it will be a fit inheritance for no species but the cockroach."

EUROPEAN BALANCE OF POWER

FROM day to day we observe, analyze, and try to measure the active warfare in China with some million men already killed, Spain with a million to a million and a half dead, Palestine, Mexico, and wonder at the whole of Europe trembling on the brink, shrinking back from the abyss, and over and over again, contrary to all human logic, saving herself. Or will Europe be at war by the time these pages are printed?

G. P. GOOCH sums up the situation from the point of view of a distinguished English historian in "The Grouping of the Powers" printed in the August issue of *Contemporary Review* and reprinted in the September *Living Age*.

"At the beginning of the World War there were eight Great Powers. At the end there were seven. . . . Four were satisfied with their share of the earth's surface, the four biggest. Three were not. The classification did not follow the simple dividing line of victory and defeat. Russia was beaten and lost territory, yet she was contented with her lot." In another connection he remarks that "the attribution by the Nazis of aggressive intentions to Moscow is pure nonsense," but he says "that Russia will rigorously defend herself if attacked is beyond all doubt." Though "Italy and Japan were on the winning side and gained territory, yet they complained that they had less than their deserts."

"That the biggest empires are content is as natural as that the smaller empires are not. While reserving our full right to censure specific endeavours of certain governments to redress the balance in their favour, we have no justification for severing nations into good and bad. Some were late starters, others had the luck of the deal. Bismarck was not the last or last statesman who created empires and made history with blood and iron."

HIS summary, for an English audience, of our own national opinion is interesting. "Of the seven Great Powers America is the most politically and psychologically detached." His analysis of the reasons for this is more sympathetic than is that of some other European opinion. "Intervention in the World War was followed by a crop of bitter disappointments which have sunk deep into the national consciousness. Instead of paying their debts the nations of Europe are spending astronomical sums on rearmament. Instead of the world becoming safe for democracy it seems to have become safe for the aggressor. . . . Millions of Americans regret that they sent their troops across the Atlantic, and millions more swear that they will not be caught again. Never was isolationism more firmly entrenched, not only because of wholesale unemploy-

ment and mounting deficits at home, but because the tragic futility of war is stamped across the face of Europe."

OF Hitler's power and probable course of action he says: "If war is to be our portion, it is he who will hurl the thunderbolt. . . . Yet there is no reason to suppose that war is a fixed point in the programme of the man who sits brooding over the map. . . . Unless a sudden emergency, such as the Serajevo murders, forces his hand, we may assume that Hitler and his advisers will carefully weigh the pros and cons of a policy of unlimited liability."

Yet the world is in the throes of a "terror which grips our hearts, of the utter uncertainty as to what may happen next week, next month or next year." He says that "the misuse of their victory by the Allies is a heart-breaking story of lost opportunities. It was a tragic mistake to impose the Treaty of Versailles on a proud nation, to refuse oral discussion, to keep Germany out of the League, to demand impossible reparations, to invade the Ruhr. . . . We are reaping what we have sown. . . . Mr. Lansbury's plan of a round-table conference would lead nowhere; for economic concessions do not carry us very far, and countries are not in the habit of surrendering their property however politely the request is made. At the moment no master-stroke of conciliation seems possible." That such a master-stroke should be accomplished by yielding some other country's property is equally improbable.

GERMANICUS in the same issue of the *Contemporary Review* analyzes "Hitler's Cards." He thinks that the five, now six cards with Austria, that Hitler holds in his hand are none of them ace high and some of them are bad; but it is a game of politics that Hitler is playing and "in poker and in politics one can bluff."

Willson Woodside asks "What Would Germany Fight With?" in the September *Harpers*. He discusses her wholly inade-

quate resources of iron, oil, rubber, cotton, and food, and her unsuccessful efforts to produce them artificially in spite of her tremendous resources of scientific laboratories and abilities. All this proves that Germany lacks the supplies absolutely necessary for a great war. "*But we can't prove that Germany will not drive on to war nevertheless.*" The italics are the author's.

The September *Living Age* reprints from the *London Banker* "Ostmark, Incorporated" by W. G. J. Knop, a discussion of German rejection of responsibility for the external debts of Austria, and from the *Sozialistische Kampf* "Testament to the Austrian Left" by the late Otto Bauer.

ITALY'S role as disturber of the peace in the Balkans is discussed by "Nestor" in "The Balkan Barrier" published in the English *Fortnightly* for August. "Italy's mischief-making has in the last few years been so widely extended between the Indian Ocean and the Atlantic that her scheming in the Balkans has tended to escape notice. . . . When the moment is reached where Italy is finally checkmated in Spain—and it seems nearer than one might have expected—Italy will have only one policy of mischief left. Squeezed out of the Danube basin and the Balkans by the activities of her partner in the Axis, disappointed in Abyssinia, foiled in Spain, she will turn her attention to the Aegean and the Levant, her only sphere left." Her success there may not be so easy, however, for when this trend of affairs became evident "the Balkan States formed a small League of Nations of themselves for the purpose of Collective Security!"

The pact of April 29 between Greece and Italy is nevertheless rather more definite than the author's reference to the League would suggest. It provides for refusal of right of way, with arms if necessary, to any aggressor against the other, and for refusal of right of residence to persons or organizations agitating against the other's political structure.

NEARER HOME

"PRESENT International Tension" is the general subject of the July issue of the *Annals of the American Academy of Political Science*, that is, it considers the whole question grouped around the doctrine of national self-sufficiency, trade barriers, haves and have-nots, pressures of population, propaganda, and our own position specifically in relation to the rest of the Americas and to the Philippines. In "Our Relations with the Other American Republics" Laurence Duggan reminds us that the "good neighbor policy" is no new thing. "The principles of understanding, confidence, friendship, and respect have been proclaimed by every President." Yet he does think that there are new and important aspects to it because for the first time it "reflects the deep-seated if somewhat inarticulate desires of the people of this country"; and he devotes his paper to some of the possible reasons for the development of such a "widespread desire that relations between this country and the other countries of this hemisphere be friendly, cooperative, and just."

REVIEWING the sixth volume of Ray Stannard Baker's *Life and Letters of Woodrow Wilson* in the *New Statesman and Nation* of August 20 Harold J. Laski says: "When all is said against him that can be said, I think Wilson remains a supreme exponent of liberalism at its best. He was, no doubt, obstinate and arrogant. His mind remained too narrowly political. He did not easily understand criticism. He had little inclination to examine the foundations of his own thinking. He never fully understood that, for causes he could not control, the battle he fought so tenaciously was a lost cause before ever he entered upon it. Yet he did see, which few other statesmen of his time saw, that the only justification for the war was its issue in a just and permanent peace. He did seek to transcend the mean and narrow ambitions of the Powers with which he was associated. He did strive

with all his might for ends that were never ignoble ends. . . . The defeat of the ends he sought is one of the supreme tragedies of history; for those who will pay the price of that defeat are the generation he laboured so earnestly to save."

ALSO out of our own past is another glimpse of what may help us to envisage the present. "The Underground Railway" by Henrietta Buckmaster in the Autumn *North American Review* is devoted to the policy and details of the system that existed before the Civil War to encourage and render aid to fugitive slaves, but it takes only half a seeing eye to observe that it can stimulate our imaginations along the right direction in this day when we wonder how in the world information—surprisingly accurate information—trickles through a country that is in the throes of a censorship almost completely successful in stopping all visible forms of communication on such subjects.

MORE nearly concerned with our future are two articles on our land: "Behold Our Land" by Russell Lord in the Autumn *North American Review* and "Saving the Soil of America" by Harold Ward in the September *Travel*. With diagrams and pictures Mr Ward explains what is meant by soil erosion, different types of terracing, methods of irrigation, soil conservation, foresting and reforestation. "Small wonder that a whole battery of government and state agencies is now directing its fire on the problem of soil conservation, and that several million bewildered farmers are asking why so much of their extremely hard labor comes to so little. They see that in regions of plentiful rain their lands are being wasted away; while in regions deficient in rainfall the wind carries it off. In an age of science, and in a country supremely endowed both with natural resources and with human skills, such a contradiction does not make sense." He is sure that "Reconstruction Is on Its Way."

MEXICO

A CRITICAL strain on our newly enunciated "good neighbor policy" toward the other countries of America presented itself in the Mexican situation. The immediate issue is the expropriation of American-owned farms for distribution among landless peons without payment except with promises, but of course it does envisage the larger issue of the recent expropriation of American oil properties and the threat concerning American mines. The *New Republic* of September 7 is vigorous in its denunciation of the course we have taken. "Mr. Hull's new note . . . proposes arbitration, or a mixed claims commission representing the United States, Mexico and some neutral country. He suggests that in the meantime expropriation be halted and that Mexico begin saving up the money to pay the damages." Pointing out that Mexico is threatened by counter revolution from her own fascists and from fascists abroad, it asks "Do we want to see Cárdenas overthrown and succeeded by a hundred-percent fascist dictator? If not, why do we help to make such a result possible?"

In the September 3 *Nation* L. O. Prendergast agrees with the point of view and goes on to discuss "Press-War on Mexico." He holds that "the State Department's move came as a response to the tenacious press campaign of recent months and was a sort of defense against the charge of American complicity in Mexican bolshevism." After paying his compliments here and there to "the kind of press Mexico is regularly getting in the United States" he has this to

say about Mexico and our relations with her:

"No country can be made to pay what it hasn't got; attempts to collect debts by force only make the debtor's position worse and reduce the possibilities of ultimate payment. A realistic acceptance of this would save both countries an incalculable amount of grief, suspicion, and hostility, and prevent, in Mexico at any rate, much bloodshed."

WITH a rather different tone D. Graham Hutton discussed in the *July Foreign Affairs* "The New-Old Crisis in Mexico." "It is, therefore, scarcely justifiable to state, as eminent Mexican governmental authorities have stated, that the foreign-owned oil companies pay 'scanty wages,' indulge in 'anti-social tendencies,' or that they maintain their workers in conditions of 'squalor and lack of sanitation.' " His general conclusions are not cheerful. "Within six weeks of the expropriation decree, economic conditions in Mexico were approaching general paralysis: prices were soaring and the Treasury was empty. . . . It remains to be seen whether the process he [Cárdenas] has set in motion will surprisingly fail to force him, or his successor, into a system of national economic control which, because it cannot admit of modification at the behest of the laboring masses, turns out to be a right-wing, instead of a left-wing, totalitarianism."

That is in the future. For the present, "the United States will have to assume, willy-nilly, a direct interest in, and responsibility for, whatever political and economic events ensued inside Mexico."

NOTES AND NEWS

PITTSBURGH MEETING, NATIONAL COUNCIL

Plans for the Pittsburgh meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies, which will be held on Friday and Saturday, November 25 and 26, are being completed. The full program will be published in the November issue.

The meetings on Friday will include: (1) a general meeting at 10 a.m., (2) a series of five luncheon conferences, (3) a group of three sectional meetings in the afternoon, and (4) a banquet and general meeting in the evening.

The meetings on Saturday will consist of a group of three sectional meetings on visual and auditory materials and instruction in the forenoon, and a luncheon and symposium at noon.

A part of the Friday evening session will be devoted to the presentation and discussion of the 1938 Yearbook on "Utilizing Community Resources in the Social Studies."

A partial list of the speakers include Dr Ben D. Graham, Superintendent of Schools, Pittsburgh; Reverend Paul E. Campbell, Superintendent of Parish Schools, Pittsburgh; Dr Carl Wittke, Oberlin College; Dr William B. Featherstone, Columbia University; Dr H. S. Jones, Superintendent of Schools, Gary, Indiana; Dr Laura Ullrick, New Trier High School, Winnetka, Illinois; Dr S. P. McCutchen, Ohio State University; Dr H. B. Bruner, Columbia University; Miss Kathryn Schnorrenberg, Baltimore; Miss Mary G. Kelty, Chicago; and Dr Howard E. Wilson, Harvard University.

A most valuable feature of conventions of this character is often the exhibit of useful material by publishers. An exceptionally fine list of exhibitors is already on file with reservations for space. The effort will be made to provide reasonable accommodations for all exhibitors, and at the same time have the exhibits so located in the William Penn Hotel that they

will be compactly placed and easy of access.

NORTHEASTERN OHIO

The History and Social Studies Section of the Northeastern Ohio Teachers' Association will meet in Cleveland on Saturday, October 28. A luncheon session will be held in the Guild Hall of the Republic Building at 12 o'clock, with Allen Y. King, president, presiding. Stanley Whiteside of Euclid, chairman of the Constitution Committee, will report and lead a discussion of organization for social studies teachers in Northeastern Ohio. It is hoped to complete the organization initiated last year. Reservations at \$1.00 each should be sent to Ruth Williams, Secretary, Audubon Junior High School, Cleveland, by October 20.

At the afternoon session, to be held in the Ball Room of the Public Auditorium at 2:30, Walter E. Myer, director of Civic Education Service, Washington, will speak on "The Teaching of Current Events," and Howard E. Wilson of Harvard University on "Needed Emphases in Social Studies Teaching."

MISSOURI

The St Louis County Commission on the Teaching of the Social Studies has just published its complete report which is made up of the following parts: I, Teachers' Guide to Cooperative Curriculum Development; II, Units of Work for the Primary Grades; III, Units of Work for the Intermediate Grades; IV, Units of Work for the Early Secondary Grades; V, Units of Work for the Middle Secondary Grades; VI, Units of Work for the Upper Secondary Grades.

The Missouri Council for the Social Studies will hold its November meeting in Kansas City, Missouri. At the luncheon session David Cushman Coyle will be the speaker. At the afternoon

session Rose Wickey, Director of Curriculum in Kansas City, will present the work that the Kansas City teachers have done during the last few years; D. C. Rucker will present the work of the Springfield, Missouri, schools; and Howard Cummings will give an account of the PEA summer workshop at Denver. J. C. A.

ALTOONA LOCAL HISTORY

The students and teachers of the Social Studies Department of the Altoona Senior High School, Altoona, Pennsylvania, have published *A History of Blair County, Pennsylvania*. This book, which contains 122 pages, including three pages of bibliography, is the realization of a plan to "make accessible to high school students the interesting and romantic background of their community life." It may be secured from the Altoona High School. The price is 25 cents for the paper covered edition, 50 cents for cloth.

An outstanding product of a study in local history, this small volume suggests the possibilities offered by the American community as a field of research for high school students.

CURRICULUM STUDY ORGANIZATION

At the close of the Workshop sponsored by the Southern Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges the social studies teachers present from the 31 high schools participating in the Southern Association of Secondary School Curriculum Study formed a permanent organization. The purpose of this organization is to provide an agency for collecting and distributing helpful materials, encouraging cooperation among the teachers and schools participating in the Study, and promoting general progress in the teaching of social studies in the South.

The study began this year and will be continued with exploratory work in the participating schools during 1938-39. The social studies organization will serve as a special agency for encouraging the application of the ideals and principles of the entire study.

The social studies teachers in the participating schools welcome suggestions from schools doing similar work in other sections. One of the functions of the social studies group is to be the publication of a monthly news-letter, which will include helpful materials for social studies teachers. Contributions to this publication should be addressed to Miss Sarah Rogers,

Frankfort High School, Frankfort, Kentucky, or to Mr B. S. Holden, Peabody Demonstration School, Nashville, Tennessee.

CURRICULUM LABORATORIES

The Office of Education has published (Bulletin 1938, no. 7) *Curriculum Laboratories and Divisions: their Organization and Functions in State Departments of Education, City School Systems, and Institutions of Higher Learning*, by Bernice E. Leary. The development of such organizations is sketched, and their present staff, resources, and activities described. Available from the Superintendent of Documents at 10 cents a copy.

STUDY HELPS

Hellen P. Pink of the Social Science Department, Central High School, Minneapolis, has recently published *Leisurely Climbing Study Steps*, a thirty-page pamphlet which presents ten "study steps." These steps are considering the word "study," analyzing study difficulties, budgeting study time, experimenting "where to study at home," discovering what makes subjects interesting, realizing the necessity for concentration and relaxation, studying specific subjects—of which history is one, taking lecture notes, preparing for examinations, and interesting the group in studying. Blank pages for pupil use are provided, and a short bibliography is appended. The price is 25 cents a copy. Address the author.

RADIO SCRIPT EXCHANGE

The Educational Radio Script Exchange has now been operating for nearly two years under the auspices of the Office of Education in Washington. The third and current edition of a Script Catalog lists 181 scripts now available, preserved following their use on the air. Various literary classics such as Cooper's "The Spy," and a series of "Interviews with the Past"—with Franklin, Shakespeare, Napoleon, Queen Elizabeth, Washington, and Catherine the Great. A series of "American Yesterdays" produced in the Pittsburgh high schools, and a series on safety education and one on vocational guidance are also included.

The scripts have been much used in "mock broadcasts" in classrooms and assemblies. A "Handbook of Sound Effects" and a "Radio Manual" have been issued by the Script Exchange to be of use in such programs.

THE STORY BEHIND THE HEADLINES

The radio programme, *The Story Behind the Headlines*, will be presented again this season by the National Broadcasting Company and the American Historical Association.

This series of weekly talks on the historical background of present day events will come each Friday evening, beginning the fourteenth of October, over the NBC red network at ten thirty Eastern Standard time. Mr. Cesar Saerchinger will again be the commentator, and will make each talk in consultation with an historian, expert in the particular field of history treated.

The talks will be published weekly by the Columbia University Press, in *The Bulletin of the Story Behind the Headlines*, for sale at ten cents per copy or one dollar for the first thirteen numbers.

Further information regarding the radio series and the Bulletin may be had by addressing Mrs Evelyn Plummer Braun, Radio Committee Office, American Historical Association, 226 South Sixteenth Street, Philadelphia.

"EDUCATION FOR TOMORROW'S AMERICA"

"Education for Tomorrow's America" is the theme for American Education Week which will be observed November 6-12.

The daily topics suggested by the National Education Association are: Sunday, November 6, Achieving the Golden Rule; Monday, Developing Strong Bodies and Able Minds; Tuesday, Mastering Skills and Knowledge; Wednesday, Attaining Values and Standards; Thursday, Accepting New Civic Responsibilities; Friday, Holding Fast to Our Ideals of Freedom; and Saturday, Gaining Security for All. This week is sponsored nationally by the National Education Association in cooperation with the United States Office of Education and the American Legion, in the hope that teachers, superintendents, teacher organizations, boards of education, and children in the schools are the ones who will take the opportunity to interpret to the lay public what is going on in the schools.

Helpful suggestions, programs, and other materials can be ordered from the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington.

PICTORIAL STATISTICS

(Note: The two following statements were written for *Social Education* at the Editor's invitation.)

What are Pictorial Statistics? How did they develop? These questions frequently appear in letters to Pictorial Statistics, Inc. Perhaps a little historical diversion may be helpful in describing the growth and development of this new technique of statistical and pictorial presentations.

Back in the early twenties in Vienna, Otto Neurath and his associates began experimenting with a new picture language. Here in Neurath's famous social museum worked Rudolf Modley, now head of Pictorial Statistics, Inc., in the United States. Not only did these pictographs leap language barriers with amazing ease, but they also presented in such clear and vivid form what would otherwise be dull and frequently incomprehensible statistical diagrams that their use rapidly spread to Holland, Russia, Germany, England and then the United States.

Because of the popularity of this new technique it has frequently been copied, not always wisely or too well. Like all methods, this new form of presentation has its advantages, its limitations, and its abuses. Frequently, materials which cannot be properly presented are done inaccurately. Quite often the wrong form of pictorial method is used.

Mr Modley points out that each symbol must convey its idea clearly and simply. For example, if you are going to show a family, there must be a symbol that will immediately convey that idea. If you are portraying schools, each symbol must indicate the school, and if possible the type of institution that is being described. Too frequently by persons not familiar with the method, inaccurate symbols have been utilized. For example, electric light bulbs have been used to represent electrical workers. As a result, the observer is consequently confused, and is unable, without study, to know whether the reference is to a human being, kilowatt hours, the number of electric light bulbs in a given area, or some other analogous topic.

How are Pictorial Statistics prepared? First, there must be careful research to obtain accurate data. Then there is an analysis of the data to determine what should be presented in pictographs, and how this can best be done.

Let us say that the chart desired is to show the growth in elementary school population and high school population from 1870 to 1934. The growth in elementary school students was from 6,871,522 or approximately 7 million in 1870 to 26,434,193 in 1934. Obviously, it would not be possible to indicate each of these students separately. Some unit of measurement must be selected that will stand for a certain number of students. Such selection depends upon the following principles: (1) The chart must be clear and simple; generally the fewer symbols the better; (2) The unit chosen should be simple. If each symbol stands for one or two million students, it will be easier to figure the number of students than if the unit were to represent 646,700 students. (3) The unit chosen must not cause inaccuracy in fractional presentation, and must avoid fractions as much as possible. (4) To make the chart more exact it is all right to cut a symbol in half but smaller fractions such as eighths and sixteenths cannot be clearly enough seen, and should be avoided if possible. With these four rules in mind, the unit that would be most divisible would appear to be two million.

With this unit basis, the statistician then charts out the number of symbols necessary for each year to be indicated. The information is then turned over to a skilled artist. He finds that he must have a symbol for an elementary school boy and girl that will quickly be understood. But since secondary pupils are also to be indicated, he drafts a symbol that will be representative of this age group. And to show the difference in schools, he prepares a symbol that will easily be understood as an elementary school, and a second symbol for a high school. With these symbols prepared and approved he then draws a rough sketch of the chart. When this is checked and approved, the final process of preparation and reproduction is carried on, and the chart is ready for publication.

Each chart prepared by Pictorial Statistics, Inc., follows this general process. If material is to be pictorially, but not statistically, presented, for example a map of agricultural regions of the United States, the same careful research program is followed, the symbols are carefully prepared and the rough sketch developed, before the chart is finally made. In this way each step of the process is carefully checked.

What services does Pictorial Statistics, Inc.

offer? How are its materials used?—are two additional questions frequently asked. Doubtless you have seen in general magazines, in textbooks, and exhibits these new pictorial presentations. The pictorial diagram simplifies and dramatizes facts—the activities of an organization, the processes of production, the areas of raw materials—but must be accurate and informative. As a consequence these pictographs have been used in such magazines as *Fortune* and the *Survey Graphic* for covers or illustrations of articles, in government publications such as the Office of Education report on forums, the National Resources Report, and the Great Plains Committee Report, and in a variety of books such as those of the Public Affairs Committee, the Twentieth Century Fund, and for such publishers as Harper and Brothers, and Harcourt, Brace and Company.

As a non-profit organization operating in the public interest, Pictorial Statistics, Inc., is particularly active in the educational field. The United States Office of Education, the National Education Association, and the Progressive Education Association have all made use of this work in a variety of ways. It is due to their interest, that this material has been specially prepared and adapted for school use.

Each of the charts prepared is made available for classroom use. In a history course, for example, one might use a chart of empires and their colonies, The Cotton Industry Moves South, The Colonial Economy, Admission to the United States, or a wide variety of other similar subjects. For each of the teaching departments of most secondary schools there is some form of statistical reproduction available. Topics already covered include geography, economics, international affairs, political science, natural science, health, history, and related topics.

In addition to charts, which have been found exceedingly valuable for classroom teaching, Dr Frank W. Hubbard of the National Education Association and Rudolf Modley have prepared a small handbook, "Instructions for Chart-makers," which tells how to make one's own pictorial statistics. For this purpose, twenty-six different symbol sheets have been prepared with a wide variety of symbols. For example, the symbol sheet on women's occupations includes a Red Cross nurse, public health nurse, machine operator, waitress, sales girl,

stenographer, textile worker, and farm worker. Thus the individual student in the classroom is able not only to study the method of statistical presentations, but in his research in subject matter to increase his fund of knowledge by practical chart work.

In educational reports, textbooks, school publications, or in interpreting the work of the school to the people of the community it serves, Pictorial Statistics are ideally adapted. Combined with brief but well written text material there is no better way to make a report effective. Instead of lengthy tables, and long and involved explanations, a few succinct paragraphs together with vividly clear and interesting pictographs in charts tell the story—a story which the reader is more likely to remember.

A catalogue of reproductions and symbol sheets is sent on request. Draft sketches of new material are made upon consultation. There is a wide future ahead for pictographs in fact films, popular exhibits, social museums, schools, reports, and many varied publications.

If you should wish further information regarding this new technique, or a copy of the catalogue, write to Pictorial Statistics, Inc., 142 Lexington Avenue, New York City.

MARGARET R. TAYLOR

THE AMERICAN RUSSIAN INSTITUTE, INC.

Social studies teachers will be interested to know that quite a variety of exhibit material on all phases of life in the Soviet Union is available through The American Russian Institute, 56 West 45th Street, New York.

These exhibits, all of which are mounted on panels, are free except for the payment of round trip transportation costs. They include (1) A General Exhibit on the Soviet Union which covers governmental administration, national economy, rights of citizens, transportation, agriculture, labor and defense. The photographic material is supplemented by numerous figures and charts. (2) An Exhibit on Women and Children which covers medical consultations given women and children, the place of women in Soviet life and the growth of children's nurseries and playgrounds. Eight charts are supplemented by a large collection

of photographs. (3) An Architectural Exhibit which covers construction of cities, reconstruction of Moscow, housing, and special building types such as theatres, clubs, houses, and factories. The material consists of photographs and a few maps. (4) An Exhibit of Nationalities which covers the physical characteristics, costumes, dwellings, and occupations of a number of the nationalities which make up the USSR. The material consists of photographs.

In addition to this exhibit material, the publications of the American Russian Institute—*The American Quarterly on the Soviet Union* and the semi-monthly *Bulletin on the Soviet Union* should be useful to social studies teachers particularly as these are the only publications entirely devoted to general factual material on the USSR appearing in the United States. The *Bulletin* contains brief factual articles keyed to current events in the Soviet Union, while the *Quarterly* contains longer studies, reference material and a news chronology. These publications which are sold together for \$2.00 a year should be invaluable as reference material for the school library.

The Institute's library and information service is always glad to furnish bibliographies to teachers and to give them detailed data on special subjects. Since the library contains a good deal of Russian source material, it is possible to furnish information not available elsewhere.

The American Russian Institute is an American, non-political educational organization, the function of which is to develop cultural relations and intellectual understanding between the people of the Soviet Union and the people of the United States through the interchange of accurate unbiased information.

For exhibit reservations or further information, please write to The American Russian Institute, Inc., 56 West 45th Street, New York.

Readers are invited to send in items for "Notes and News." Items for December should be sent in by November 1.

Contributors to this issue include Julian C. Aldrich, C. C. Barnes, R. O. Hughes, Allen Y. King, Laura Y. Warren, and Ina F. Woestemeyer.

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BOOK REVIEWS

Peaceful Change: A Study of International Procedures. By Frederick Sherwood Dunn. New York: Council on Foreign Relations, 1937. Pp. vii, 156. \$1.50.

This book is devoted to the theme that "no peace system can be expected to work for any length of time unless it contains adequate provisions for bringing about changes in the status quo as required by changing conditions." The author argues that there are many reasons for change in the status quo other than desire for raw materials for industrial life. He names power politics, prestige, national honor, self-sufficiency, and ethnic unity; and he analyzes each in turn as a threat to peace. To be sure, nations that by historical accident control large sources of supply will continue to threaten world peace unless some international code of fair practice for the protection of the general consumer can be worked out, and unless a production control scheme is provided where consumer representation can be assured. It is almost too much to expect favored nations to give up their industrial advantages if they cannot see that their best national interest is served within a larger economic whole. The Have Not nations feel insecure in the face of their industrial needs, and so long as this insecurity persists nations will more and more depend on national power to gain their ends. This admirable chapter concludes with the statement, "Real progress cannot be expected until some means can be found to lessen the feelings of insecurity which now cause nations to subordinate everything to the building up of national power."

Transfer of land would not lessen the population pressure, which is given as another cause of war. The only areas to be developed would call for such an enormous expenditure that nations desiring such outlets would not have

adequate resources to develop them. Dr Dunn suggests that an international agreement might be made whereby a joint enterprise could develop these backward areas to the point where European emigrants would be willing to settle. While this internationalization of territory would raise many difficult and complex questions, he thinks the plan might be worth attempting.

Chapter iv deals with the machinery now in existence to bring about peaceful change, all of which is voluntary. It has been most difficult to bring about change when one nation makes demands on something which is the lawful possession of another nation. New machinery needs to be set up to deal with changing needs. "In brief, the problem of peaceful change calls for procedures adapted to persuasion, investigation, the discovery of compromises, the determination of the general welfare, the organization of opposition, the marshalling of public opinion, the manipulation of pressures and means of coercion short of actual resort to hostilities."

All of these needs call for an intensification of means of settling disputes. History is filled with many changes brought about by methods of diplomatic negotiation, conciliation, conference, and international legislation. Much more emphasis and publicity should be given to these agencies for settling disputes peacefully. International legislative machinery has been slow to develop. Nations hesitate to give up rights to an outside agency vested with power to override national interests. Common agreement has been comparatively easy in such new political realms as health, transit, labor, public welfare.

The author believes that trade too must be freed from national exploitation and that we can have no assured peace until all nations feel

secure in their need for goods now controlled by power nations. He thinks we must look toward a liquidation of colonial empires and goes so far as to propose a scheme whereby this can be managed. He proposes an advisory board made up of both producing and consuming countries which would operate in distributing raw material in much the same way as the advisory committee on the opium trade. Through publicity they could develop a common body of opinion as to what constitutes fair practice in exploitation and distribution of raw materials. For nations financially unable to buy in the open markets he suggests a system of foreign credits under some international supervision in which all interested parties would be represented. This would call for the development of new markets since no nation would willingly relinquish the possession of its advantages at the present.

Germany's demand for a return of colonies is a phase of power politics which must be taken under consideration by the powers. Dr Dunn suggests a sort of international protectorate system in which Germany would be represented on an equal basis with other powers.

All of this would mean a genuine revival of international trade in which Germany and the dissatisfied Have Not nations would be allowed an active and participating part. This would call for the setting up of a broad economic committee to deal with matters of currency and trade regulation. Dr Dunn feels that all the proposals so far have been devised to settle disputes. He advocates that committees be set up in each country to consider desirable changes in the status quo before public opinion has become fixed and nations are stampeded into a war psychology. These investigating committees should be manned by eminent personalities that carry weight. Such a body could marshal support for solutions favorable to the general welfare, rather than allow certain fixed demands for change in the status quo to bring nations to the breaking point.

Dr Dunn, therefore, not only analyzes the various causes making for war but suggests a practical scheme whereby these difficulties may be peacefully settled. He suggests a scheme which he feels attacks more realistically the problems of change in the status quo than does the existing peace machinery. Whether we agree with his proposals or not, we admire his

keen analysis of the existing causes for war and are stimulated by his suggestions for peaceful change. It is the type of readable book that the public needs in these days of war and rumors of war.

NELLE E. BOWMAN

Central High School
Tulsa, Oklahoma

International Aspects of German Racial Policies.

By Oscar Isaiah Janowsky and Melvin M. Fagen with a preface by James Brown Scott. New York: Oxford Univ. Press, 1937. Pp. xxi, 266. \$2.00.

The authors invoke leading authorities on international law, from Grotius down, to prove that intercession on behalf of the victims of inhumanities within a state has been an established principle of international relations for nearly three centuries, and they provide documentary evidence to indicate that ever since the French Revolution the doctrine of international responsibility for the observance of religious equality was generally adhered to. They argue convincingly that the treatment of minorities within a state is an international rather than a domestic problem and that Germany's racial policies have had serious repercussions in other nations—by forcing emigration, by creating refugee problems, and by menacing and attacking bordering states. In the chapter "The Task of the League of Nations" the authors indicate that it was within the province of the League to step in and put a stop to the practices of the Third Reich, and that the responsibility for the failure to do so must be placed upon its membership.

There are three appendixes, making up one half of the book. James G. MacDonald's letter of resignation as High Commissioner for Refugees (Jewish and other), addressed to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations, and its appended "comprehensive analysis of the German legislation, administrative decrees and jurisprudence, as well as of their effects on the problem of the refugees," constitute a valuable primary source for a study of the facts of this situation. The concluding appendixes are devoted to expressions of opinion by internationally prominent figures from all walks of life.

It is a pity that the authors did not follow

up their excellent presentation of the case with specific recommendations. Everybody is aware of the facts. The problem is what to do about those facts.

EDWARD M. COHEN

Samuel J. Tilden High School
Brooklyn, New York

These Foreigners. By William Seabrook. New York: Harcourt Brace, 1938. Pp. ix, 358. \$2.50.

To the large amount of material on immigration this is a welcome addition, for it supplements the statistical, historical, and controversial accounts with a human interest story of the foreign born now living in the United States. The author visited the immigrant in every part of the country. He ate Swedish smorgasbords, talked cooperatives with Danes, attended the annual Italian Barbers' Ball, visited Italian garment workers, and talked with those in charge of Casa Italiana at Columbia University. He played euchre with Germans, talked with them in rathskellers over beer and pretzels, visited farmers with a German Lutheran pastor. He listened to Polish mazurkas and sweated with Polish workers in coal mines. He made friends with a former world champion wrestler turned Greek Orthodox priest and a Russian peasant become a biochemist. He drank vodka with members of the former nobility. These experiences he incorporated in a series of articles in the *American Magazine*, and then in this book.

What he saw and heard led him to believe that the Melting Pot—"despite the fact that it bubbles, emits steam, and occasionally has to be skimmed of scum—is producing a good, sound, healthy conglomerate." As proof of the character of many Americans by adoption, he cites examples of individuals in the five major groups studied. Long lists of names in the text are usually augmented by longer lists in footnotes giving the names of those immigrants who have contributed to the industrial, political, and cultural life of America. Their number is legion and their contributions manifold.

Of more interest because of the tense international situation are his conclusions as to the thought of the Germans, Italians, Russians, Scandinavians, and Poles on political issues. After citing substantial proof that the Italian is no more a criminal than other foreign lan-

guage groups or the so-called native white stock, he remarks that "most prosperous Italian Americans are enthusiastic for Fascism and Mussolini—in Italy—but are nonetheless good American citizens completely loyal to this, their new adopted country." The prosperous and middle class Italian American "worship Mussolini as a hero, as they once did Garibaldi," but he says he could find nowhere any important group trying to forward American fascism. Among the labor groups he found "a violent and active propaganda against Mussolini and against Fascism."

Of the Germans he estimates that 70 per cent are indifferent towards Hitlerism, 20 per cent are anti-Nazi, 9 per cent pro-Nazi and yet loyal, and 1 per cent rabid Nazi and "un-American." He characterizes Germans as the "most important, and most admirable and generally loyal, but least lovable of all our foreign language race groups." Much of the fault lies with Americans and much of the trouble is explained by their treatment at our hands in the World War.

Of the Russians he says that they are always fantastic, whether good, bad, indifferent, rich or poor. After pointing out many similarities between Russians and Americans, he concludes that they are "more like 'us' than any of our other foreign-language fellow citizens." As to their political views he calls them liberal socialist with a sprinkling of communists.

Scandinavians have come into the international spotlight of recent years. What, then, Mr Seabrook asks himself, do the American-Scandinavians think? He replies to his own question in this fashion: "The Scandinavian-American farmers are not . . . radicals at all. They are agrarian liberals, almost untinged by Marxian or Communist doctrines. They are interested in co-operatives, but are, by nature, small capitalists, owners of property, respecters of individual property rights." Speaking of them further, he declared, "They think in terms of free farmers and free farms, privately owned. They are strong for co-operatives, but dead against Communism, and will remain so." The urban, laboring groups are Marxian and Socialist. Some of them are "red-tinged," occasionally flirting with communism.

The Poles he dismisses in much shorter space with the assertion that "the Pole, whether in Poland or in America, whether a

college graduate or day laborer, is close to being the bitterest enemy of Communism in the world today." Much of this he believes is due to their bitter hatred of Russia.

When the reader finishes the book, he will be less likely to regard immigrants as Wops, Poles, Heinies, and dumb Swedes. He will be more likely to think of them as contributors to American civilization and culture. For that reason it should be required reading for the "American Aryan" or 100 percenter. It should be suggested outside or collateral reading for students and recommended reading for teachers of American history, sociology, and Problems of Democracy courses.

LEONARD S. KENWORTHY

Friends' Central School
Overbrook, Pennsylvania

Western Lands and The American Revolution.

By Thomas Perkins Abernethy. New York: Appleton Century, 1938. Pp. xv, 413. \$4.00.

This book deals with the old theme of "westward expansion" from the years just before the middle of the seventeenth century through the Confederation period. After 1784 the region north of the Ohio is excluded on the ground that any consideration of it would be a mere repetition of what has been done before. This is "westward expansion," but the author is not concerned with recounting the progress of glorious achievement. Instead he records the history of land speculation as it affected political development and the ultimate development of the body politic. As the author says in his preface, "It matters not that men speculated in land, but it does matter that men in high places should have used their official position to fasten their claim on the one great asset the nation possessed."

With such a plan for the book, it is lamentable but not strange that the names of famous men should appear in sorry light. Grave charges, for instance, are made concerning the negotiations of Silas Deane and Benjamin Franklin in France during the American Revolution, and, although the reader wishes for more complete documentation and perhaps fuller quotation, it is difficult wholly to doubt the charges.

Even more grievous than these charges against individual men is the description—and there can be no doubt of the validity of

that—of speculators ruthlessly exploiting the western lands at the expense of the actual settlers and of the country at large.

Professor Abernethy neglects, however, to dwell on the other factor in the exploitation of the Indians. The American Indian did have certain very clearly defined moral and legal rights, all of which were ignored, and it is possible to say that the same civilization that rode so lightly over the rights of a "lesser people" could hardly be expected to deal successfully with its speculators. Perhaps, in short, we deserved what we got.

K.E.C.

Divided We Stand: the Crisis of a Frontierless Democracy. By Walter P. Webb. New York: Farrar, 1938. Pp. vii, 239. \$2.50.

Since Frederick Jackson Turner read his paper on the American frontier at the American Historical Association meeting in 1893, few American historians have been able to ignore his conclusions. The author of the present volume shows this influence in his subtitle, *The Crisis of a Frontierless Democracy*. As he finishes the book the reader is indeed left with a distinct feeling of crisis. The author's West starts at the second tier of states west of the Mississippi, and Minnesota, Iowa, Missouri, and Maryland are reckoned as Northern, but these are not the main things in this analysis of sectionalism that will probably provoke much controversy. Interesting and stimulating as the book is, it can hardly be called objective. There can be no doubt about the author's sectional interest or of his political philosophy. One might even suspect that he carries a chip on his shoulder.

Professor Webb's thesis is that the division of the United States is greater in a material way than it was in 1860, that new governing powers have arisen which contradict democracy in their methods of control and purpose. He sees this division of sectionalism in various aspects. Corporations, with the bulk of their capital concentrated in the Northeast, have a privileged position, having gained by Supreme Court decision the right to be considered as "persons" more or less sacrosanct and enjoying what amounts to a government guarantee of profits—something no other class gets. Public tariff and public patent policies enrich and protect corporation profits and investment.

Moreover many of the ablest students trained at public expense in public institutions are employed by corporations and devote their lives and trained skill to that service. Even philanthropy has a sectional significance. Fortunes gained throughout all sections of the country are given, in life or by will, by and large to the institutions of the North. In 1936 northern colleges, libraries, and museums received six times the gifts to southern institutions and five times those of the West.

The author of this book says that relief began with our national history. The public domain was the original relief fund. The homesteader "lived a little and lied a lot," while the WPA man "lies a little and leans a lot." Railroads, cattlemen, miners were cut off "relief" when the frontier was closed, but tariffs, patents, and pensions continued. Since most of the beneficiaries of these favors lived in the North, that section profited largely from these forms of public benefit. The influence of pensions on the economic development of the North is hinted at, as well as the political effect of this largess from the public treasury.

Two modern features of American life, moving pictures and automobiles, results of mass production, vary the picture a little. There is concentration of investment but diffusion in matters of employment. The general demand for operators, mechanics, filling station employees, and similar service has lessened the number of small town loafers and "domino players."

Some of the proposals under "Is There a Way Out" might be classed as very radical, but Professor Webb believes that all programs will fail if the people do not maintain a sustained and increasing interest in government and if all parts of the country are not well informed. The book would be more valuable if it had a bibliography and an index. There are a few minor errors in fact, and the documentation is sparing. Tables, charts, and diagrams give valuable statistics in usable form.

ELIZABETH COCHRAN

Kansas State Teachers College
Pittsburg, Kansas

Men and Iron. By Edward Hungerford. New York: Crowell, 1938. Pp. vii, 424. \$3.75.

Men and Iron is the story of the New York Central Railroad. From the statement of its

former president, A. H. Smith, that "this railroad is ninety-five percent man and five percent iron" the author gets his title and a point of view which makes his narrative as much a story of men as an account of the physical development of the road.

The author, an official of the road and thoroughly conversant with its history, is one of those rare writers who can marshal facts in a lucid and entertaining manner to make history as thrilling as an adventure story. Much of the appeal of the story is due to the copious yet judicious use of selections from contemporary and illustrative material. Especially good are the accounts of famous trains, fast runs, popular excursions, rate wars, and feats of engineering and construction. The author's greatest weakness is his tendency to make heroes of his characters and to see nothing wrong in them or their deeds. This is particularly true in his treatment of the Vanderbilts. Commodore Vanderbilt, "the leading figure in the whole history of the Central to date," is portrayed as an outstanding figure of business and financial ability, shrewdness, and integrity whom he easily justifies for his part in the famous 80 per cent midnight stock dividend to enrich insiders.

The story begins with the dream of George W. Featherstonhaugh of a "road of rails" through his beautiful Mohawk Valley. He obtained the aid of Stephen Van Rensselaer and in 1826 the Mohawk and Hudson was granted a charter by the legislature. The success of this road led to the building of seven short lines which were combined in 1853 into the original Central "for that day indeed a great railroad." Commodore Vanderbilt turning from steamboats to steam engines obtained control of the Central, the Harlem, and the Hudson River, and he united them into one system to which was added from time to time other lines to give access to the west and round out the system. Into this background of physical growth is woven the story of progress in railroad transportation from improvement of equipment to the construction of great terminals such as the Grand Central without delaying traffic. As a good story and as a background the book is well worth reading.

STANLEY E. HEASON

Board of Education
Albany, New York

Great Indian Chiefs. By Albert Britt. New York: McGraw Hill, 1938. Pp. xi, 280. \$2.50.

Around the life and achievements of eight Indian leaders—King Philip, Joseph Brant, Pontiac, Tecumseh, Black Hawk, Sitting Bull, Captain Jack, and Nez Percé Joseph—the author has set forth his conception of the essentials of the relations between the white man and the Indian. "The story of the American Indian from 1675 to 1890 is one long tragedy of hopeless struggle against fate in the person of the land-hungry, resistless white man" (p. 3). The general point of view of the book, then, is in entire accord with the recent trend of scholarly research and may well serve as a useful antidote for the usual textbook treatment of the glories of westward expansion. As for accuracy and balance in detail, the biographies suffer from the lack of wide reading of sources and of a good working knowledge of recent researches. Of these researches perhaps the most important are those which have thrown doubt on the picture Francis Parkman drew of Pontiac as a great organizer and leader and have left us a very much less picturesque figure indeed. Interestingly written, the book will appeal to pupils in the elementary school as well as in the junior and senior high school.

Conqueror of the Seas. The Story of Magellan. By Stefan Zweig. Trans. by Eden and Cedar Paul. New York: Viking, 1938. Pp. xv, 335. \$3.50.

Even if it dealt with a man and a field of history more abundantly treated in adequate material suitable for school use, this book would be a desirable addition to a school library, but, dealing as it does with a man and a period that remain quite dead in most school history books, it will prove doubly welcome. Most of the material was easily available before, but this book presents it in a thoroughly interesting form.

With skill the author sets the stage for the age of exploration—the limited diet of the Middle Ages and the quest for spices, the rising demand for perfumes, silks, and other Oriental luxuries, existing and potential trade routes, the difficulties and dangers of trade, and the long preparatory labors of Prince Henry of Portugal. He follows with a quick enumeration of achievement piling on achievement, of

Columbus' discovery of America in 1492 followed in 1498 by Vasco da Gama's voyage to India by way of the Cape of Good Hope, of Balboa's discovery of the Pacific, and all the far-reaching explorations of the succeeding adventurous generation. "Only one thing remained to do—the last, the finest, and the most difficult—to circumnavigate the world on one and the same vessel" (p. 28-29).

Lacking the kind of evidence which would make possible a personal biography, a picture of individual resolves and conflicts, the author has, nevertheless, kept Magellan's name and personality constantly in the reader's mind and has thereby succeeded in writing an absorbing story of human ability, limitations, needs, and desires in the midst of explorations of profound historical importance.

George Mason, Constitutionalist. By Helen Hill. Cambridge: Harvard Univ. Press, 1938. Pp. xxii, 300. \$3.50.

The author of this book is fortunate in having chosen to give us a much needed biography of a man of first rate importance during the most creative years of our national life. It is no part of her task to build up an atmosphere of prominence, for her protagonist is moving across the center of a great stage. He was influential in consolidating public opinion against Great Britain in the years before the Revolution and in setting up a new scheme of government in the years thereafter—second not at all to the galaxy of other Virginians, Washington, Jefferson, Madison, and Monroe. He framed the Virginia Declaration of Rights, which Jefferson used as a basis for the Declaration of Independence, which was also the basis for the first ten amendments to the United States Constitution, and which exerted a not inconsiderable influence on the French during the French Revolution. He sat in the Constitutional Convention and was responsible for a large portion of the federal Constitution. In the end, however, he opposed the adoption of that instrument on grounds whose justification can be found twice in subsequent changes to the Constitution itself and once—perhaps the most important—at the bar of history, for, believing as he did that slavery was "diabolical in itself and disgraceful to mankind," his main objection to the Constitution was that it embodied a compromise between

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New England and the Lower South on tariff and the slave trade. The wisdom of his own proposals for dealing with the dilemma of slavery by manumission, education, and indemnity to slave-owners may be indicated by remarking that they were almost identical with the measures adopted successfully in Great Britain some forty years after his death.

In spite of the extraordinarily deft touch of the author, by the very nature of its material dealing with the theory and creation of government a good deal of the book is solid going. It is so well done, though, that the best high-school students can hope to get a glimpse of this important phase of thought, and their teachers can hope by careful reading to get a real grasp of the matter.

Of easier content and wide appeal are the first chapters which set the stage and leave an impressive picture of earlier development in our country, land speculation, commerce, colonial politics, of a generation of gracious living in houses not only grand but beautiful, of stately progression from wealth to more wealth, neighborly visits up and down the river, service in the colonial capital of Williamsburg, and the rumbling of a great Revolution.

Tench Coxe: A Study in American Economic Development. By Harold Hutcheson. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1938. Pp. ix, 227. \$2.25.

As an example of what can be done by considering the lives and works of men in the second rank of importance this book is excellent. Avowedly a book for specialists, devoted to Coxe's economic ideas rather than to the details of an active life, it nevertheless illuminates a good deal of history. Shifting his political allegiance from Tory, in 1777, to Whig, in 1780 he served in the Revolutionary militia, in the Annapolis Convention in 1786, and in the Continental Congress in 1788. As a Federalist he supported John Adams, "a friend of property," but by 1796 favored Jefferson and in the bitter presidential campaign of 1800 actively worked for the Republicans. As one of the several contemporaries of Alexander Hamilton who thought and wrote as Hamilton did about economic matters, he had an important place, too often overlooked. The author regrets that, owing to unwillingness of the family to

grant permission to use the main body of Coxe manuscripts, he was unable to trace what part Coxe, then serving as Hamilton's assistant in the Treasury, played in the formulation of Hamilton's famous Report on Manufacturers. The author has, however, no trouble in substantiating his position that Coxe was one of the earliest American advocates of a "balanced national economy," which still eludes the grasp of political planners, and for which, he thinks, the Supreme Court decision against the Agricultural Adjustment Act "raises the question as to whether the necessary coordination can be obtained within the spirit and letter of the Federal Constitution."

The Hidden Lincoln: From the Letters and Papers of William H. Herndon. Ed by Emanuel Hertz. New York: Viking, 1938. Pp. 461. \$5.00.

Immediately after Lincoln's assassination Herndon, who had for twenty years been his law partner, political adviser, and friend, went to Kentucky and to Indiana to talk to those who had known Lincoln and to write down their testimony concerning Lincoln's childhood and youth. Until he died in 1891 Herndon collected Lincoln material and generously parcelled it out to the long string of biographers who appealed to him for information, each using it according to his own lights and all failing to acknowledge properly the extent of their indebtedness. For many years now it has been whispered that these biographers failed to touch certain personal revelations too scandalous for public print.

Right here I may say that there is nothing in the material that is very likely to shock our own generation, and there is nothing to change materially the accepted judgment of Lincoln as a great man who can hardly be explained in terms of his surroundings—or be explained at all.

Herndon's great preoccupation was to come to some satisfactory explanation of Lincoln's terrible melancholy, and for himself he found five facts to be convincing: the illegitimate birth of Lincoln's mother and the general worthlessness of his family blood, the death of the romantic Ann Rutledge, the two periods of insanity, the book he had written to announce himself an infidel, and his later unhappy marriage.

This volume is of course absolutely essential to the scholar, and it is invaluable even to a general reader whose interest lies in social history as well as biography. It is fascinating in its very repetitiousness and in its emphasis on things which do not seem important to us but which probably seemed important to Lincoln as well as to Herndon. It all adds to the sense of making the acquaintance of Lincoln as we might have known him in the flesh instead of as a marble figure enthroned in history.

K.E.C.

The Story of the Alphabet. By Edward Clodd. new ed. New York: Appleton Century, 1938. Pp. xi, 209. \$1.25.

This popular standard work on the history of the alphabet is here reprinted on better paper and in better format than previous editions. The main feature of this new edition is the addition of a twelve-page foreword by George H. McKnight, professor of English at Ohio State University. The foreword attempts briefly to point out the changes which archaeological research since 1900 have made in the story. Clodd, writing in 1900, overemphasized the importance of the Cretan tablets then recently described by Sir Arthur Evans. The significant contribution of the discovery of the pre-Phoenician inscriptions by Sir Flinders Petrie in 1906 during his Sinai Peninsular researches is briefly pointed out in the foreword, but no changes have been made in the text of the book. The foreword is unnumbered and does not fit in with the numbering scheme for the rest of the book since none of the original plates have been altered.

HARRIET H. SHOEN

New York City

The Mail Comes Through. Pp. 128. **Through by Rail.** Pp. 144. **Skyways.** Pp. 124. All by Charles Gilbert Hall. New York: Macmillan, 1938. \$1.32 each.

Any teacher searching for materials to use in connection with units on communication and transportation will be interested in this series of social science readers, which is intended primarily for use in the intermediate grades. The books are interestingly written and hold the attention of the reader as they unfold the drama of man's struggle to improve his present ways of living and his present knowl-

edge of the forces that influence his progress. They are not merely a chronology of events but include something of the work of the people through whom progress has been made. The make-up is attractive. The type is large enough for easy reading, and the numerous photographs, posters, and sketches reprinted from various well known government and private collections are of great value. Occasional tables help the reader keep in mind the chronology of the development of the particular system being discussed. The glossary in *Skyways* is very complete and will be of great interest and value to any pupil particularly interested in aviation. The lack of maps is noticeable. A few well chosen, simple maps would have helped the reader to interpret and to follow the text.

KATHERINE CLARKE

Washington University
St Louis, Missouri

The Roots of American Civilization. By Curtis P. Nettels. New York: Crofts, 1938. Pp. xx, 748. \$4.00.

The major purpose of this book is to delineate social classes, their economic foundations and their conflicts—the "common day of American colonials"—as the formatives of the United States in which we live. The author has essayed these things in a narrative starting with the Norse revival in Europe and ending at the peace of American independence. You may wonder what connection, other than in chronological sequence, Norsemen, Portuguese explorers, Spanish conquerors have with the society and economic conditions in the United States of our time, but you will see that the author could not avoid discussing them because they are traditional in any text on American colonial history. This is a description, not an analysis. There is here no swift elision after scrutiny of things which have no bearing upon the institutions, ideas, and people of today. It is a condensation from the record of those times. Yet the title is not a misnomer. Once on his way according to tradition, the author does take his course through the economic, social, geographical materials which have determined pursuits, stations in life, and places of residence. Political phenomena, wars, and public events are subordinated to processes of settlement and growth, influences of race and religions, and the impact of hard tasks in primi-

tive surroundings upon the minds of average men. You may be disappointed with the cursory treatment of Sam Adams and others whom you have been reared to adore as patriots, but you will be compensated elsewhere by the accounts of the slaves, the indentured servants, their trials, and their contributions to the United States of today.

There are over 700 pages of text with footnotes citing other works to be read. These refer not only to standard volumes but to more recent studies in professional journals. The author has evaluated this bibliography according to his conception of the reader's level of maturity. Notes follow each chapter to draw attention also to sources. Illustrations are scattered through the book. The photographs, old prints, and many of the maps are effective. Others have been reduced too much. The charts on distribution and increase of population would have greater influence upon all readers if they were arranged more closely for comparison. They can give only a general impression anyhow. They should stress the speed of growth. The story has been put together with great care and labor. It shows large knowledge of the subject, extensive reading, and individual research. Its style is clear and deliberate, though painstaking on occasion to the point of redundancy. Explanations could be omitted which only confirm, do not deepen, understanding. Some quotations manufactured from colloquialisms of today seem to lower rather than heighten interest. However this should not detract from appreciating the book's usefulness. It is designed for college classes, but it is one from which readings may be selected for secondary school students. Teachers in secondary education will find it helpful with courses that touch upon American colonial life, whether directly in history or in related fields of study.

When you have read this book, you will agree with the editor of the series that the basic institutions of American government and the prevailing philosophy of today were shaped in large measure during the colonial period of this country. You may think it a more telling generalization to say that the waves of alien immigration which have swept in upon the Anglo-Saxons and Scotch-Irish of colonial times have not succeeded as yet in altering to any great degree the philosophy and the in-

stitutions of their day. The endurance of these things more than their generative force seems remarkable.

ARTHUR B. DARLING

Phillips Academy
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The Growth of European Civilization. By A. E. R. Boak, Albert Hyma, Preston Slosson. New York: Crofts, 1938. Pp. xxv, 613. \$4.50.

This volume represents an outgrowth of the lectures given to freshmen at the University of Michigan in an introductory course in General European Civilization, and in manuscript form it has been read and criticized by outstanding historians in many fields. The volume, therefore, comes well recommended, representing, as it does, the product of sound scholarship and of practical teaching experience. It is my purpose in this review not to try to discover insignificant errors, typographical or otherwise, but rather to appraise this book and its potentialities from the standpoint of the secondary school history teacher.

The volume of 1,000 pages begins with the dawn of history and continues on into the twentieth century A.D., but the main emphasis has been on the period since the fall of the Mediterranean civilization. The important social, economic, and cultural movements have been stressed in connection with political development. Because of the wide scope of the subject in hand, the treatment is necessarily concise, and consequently the specialists in certain fields would bemoan very naturally the slight and apparently superficial discussion of their own favorite themes. However, in a work of such proportions as this an attractive summarizing of epochs and developments is all that one could expect. And this summarizing is remarkably well done. In spite of the condensation the style is interesting and even absorbing. Each chapter is followed by a list of suggested readings and is supplied with enough pictures and maps to supplement the text. The index is extensive, and the format of the volume is pleasing.

In our secondary schools I believe it would be impractical to offer a course in history whose limits would extend over a period of fifty centuries. To start with the development of agriculture in Egypt as the foundation of civilized life and to continue through to the demoralizing World War would present a range of his-

tory too gigantic and overpowering in extent for any high school class. However, this comprehensive volume should be of inestimable value as a reference work for students. In this respect it is quite suitable for the high school level. For instance, it explains the derivation and meaning of many such terms as *paganus*, humanism, Domesday Book, iconoclasts, manuscript—and does so in a way that catches the student's imagination, or for another example, "This court was called the *exchequer* because the officials were seated around a table on which counters were moved about, making it appear as if they were playing checkers" (Vol. I, p. 248). Furthermore the student in one particular field should gain much by reading the summary given in this volume, and thereby seeing his own subject in a new prospective and in relation to the history of other countries, for this volume does attempt to tie together the various strands of history and to show up the interplay and the overlapping. For instance in the succinct account of the legal changes established by Henry II of England, distinct reference is made to the Justinian law code and to the Frankish jury system, thus showing the influence of the Romans and the Franks on the development of English judiciary. I doubt if the average English textbook brings out this relationship. The entire American Revolution is dispensed with in only three pages, but a good paragraph is devoted to the effect of that struggle upon English and French history. Although the description of the Monroe Doctrine is extremely brief, yet it is placed significantly in the section on revolutionary movements of the Metternich era. There is always this attempt to interpret national history in the light of larger European issues. It is this comparative presentation of facts and trends that makes this study of such value to the present day student of history. Here we find a successful breaking down of the unit compartment method of history study, and, instead, a satisfactory attempt to give a bird's eye view, revealing the unity and interrelation of all western culture. We recommend this work especially to all young history teachers and also to anyone who has not had sufficient opportunity for history study and who feels the need of a very readable and informative outline.

HESTER R. DAVIES

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Natick, Massachusetts

The American Legion as Educator. By William Gellerman. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia Univ., 1938. Pp. ix, 280. \$3.15.

Mr Gellerman, who is himself a war veteran, an American Legion member, and a student of education, has undertaken in this volume to evaluate the role of the American Legion as educator. Not only does the author consider the Legion's efforts in connection with the country's formal educational system, but he goes on to describe the organization's activities in the wider sphere of public opinion. The Legion's conception of Americanism, its war against subversive influences, its attitude toward peace and national defense, and its program in behalf of the nation's youth all receive attention.

The author has made a thorough study of the sources. Naturally he relies primarily upon pertinent Legion publications, but he has also investigated a good deal of periodical and newspaper material. The book is adequately and carefully footnoted. In order adequately to evaluate the Legion's activities, he has made a careful study of the Legion leadership as represented by the national commanders. These leaders, he finds, are usually men who have seen actual service in France, members of a privileged economic class, enjoying a certain social prestige and having a definite interest in politics. They are the real rulers of an organization which is democratic only in name, but autocratic in fact. The rank and file of the Legion, he says, are members of the lower middle class, economically and socially somewhat more secure than the proletariat. Basing his argument on the debatable point that the interests of the Legion members are logically allied to those of the proletariat, Mr Gellerman concludes that the average Legionnaire does himself and the class to which he belongs no service by accepting the leadership of men whose interests are those of big business.

Unfortunately in his enthusiasm over his thesis, the author weakens his point by somewhat obviously choosing his examples to justify his conclusion. For instance, in his section headed "The Meaning of Americanism" (pp. 69-77), he has chosen quotations from speeches and writings of Legion leaders which indicate an ever narrower interpretation of Americanism. Beyond a doubt the careful student could

find a group of quotations that would indicate quite as positively an increasingly liberal definition of that ill defined term. But if he went on to describe the Americanism activities of the Legion, his story would probably disclose, as does Mr Gellerman's, little real change in the philosophy underlying the Americanism program. Another instance is found in his generalization regarding the universal draft, in the course of which he says that "those back of the measure are less interested in taking the profits out of war than in passing legislation which will keep the wages of labor in status quo in case of war" (p. 199)—a generalization which is not substantiated by his discussion.

Although the arguments presented are open to question, the book is of value in calling to the attention of those interested in education the great influence of a private organization in shaping public opinion.

DOROTHY CULP

University of Chicago

Scholars, Workers, Gentlemen. By Malcolm S. MacLean. Cambridge: Harvard Univ. Press, 1938. Pp. 86. \$1.00.

There was once a Greek philosopher named Plato who wrote a treatise on education and endeavored to find the right education for the right pupil. And he divided men into three groups and sought, as the author suggests in this book, "to identify them in childhood" and "hunt them out early" for the group to which they properly belonged. The author of this book also provides for three groups—"scholars, workers, and gentlemen." Gentlemen are apparently "socialites" who are at home and at ease in this complex world of ours; hence scholars who devote themselves to the pursuit of knowledge "that is of little or no immediate practical concern" to others can not be gentlemen; they can not even be men for "the scholar should not be expected to be a good husband or wife, although he should not be barred from marriage." And yet the situation is saved in the end, for "we want scholars developed to the last fine limits of their abilities to bring us new knowledge; scholars who, in times of leisure, can raise families, enjoy recreation." ("In a fit of absent-mindedness" would have been more appropriate than "times of leisure" to the author's picture of the scholar.)

Workers are to be trained "to do a compe-

tent job suited to them and useful to the world," but they must have a general education as well, oriented "to the uncountable variety of tasks that men and women perform," with "a philosophy of life and sense of values," trained for "home and family living," and conscious that they "are sharing and responsible members of a community, state and nation." And all are to be gentlemen (including in the end scholars) for "we want all our people, in greater or less degree, to learn to be at home and at ease in this complex world of home, workshop, or office, and in political, social, and economic affairs where they can best work together toward common goals." Like Plato this author wants leaders and non-leaders, specialists and generalists. Having annihilated the scholars because they are busy filling in "an enormous, complex and rather abstract background mural painting of the life of the world" without painting in "the foreground and the focus of interest that arises from the problems of contemporary society and those of the children in the classroom," this author, unlike Plato, does not tell us who will lead the workers and gentlemen from the cave to the light. One reader, at any rate, does not feel as confident as he "that the 'confusion and chaos' out of present conflicts and uncertainties is on the way to perhaps temporary but orderly resolution."

ISAAC L. KANDEL

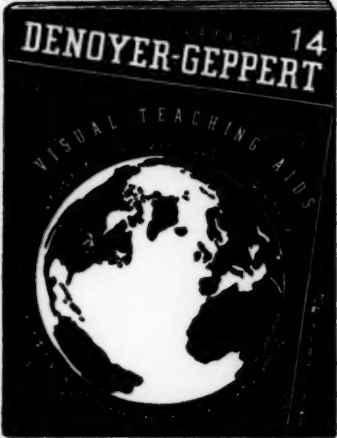
Teachers College
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